

# THE CRITICAL REVIEW.

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For the Month of *February, 1783.*

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*Letters Military and Political. From the Italian of Count Algarotti. 8vo. 5s. in Boards.* Egerton.

FROM the reputation of count Algarotti, and the degree of favour in which he stood with his Prussian majesty, it may naturally be presumed that his knowledge of various subjects was extensive, and that he possessed an accurate discernment in the prosecution of his several enquiries. His acquaintance was courted by men distinguished for their rank and character; and he maintained a literary correspondence with persons in all the nations of Europe. The objects that chiefly employed his attention were war and politics, particularly the former; in his speculations on which he discovers a freedom of thought becoming one who passed his days in the court of a monarch renowned for his skill both in the theory and practice of this art.

The first of these letters is addressed to count Perron, formerly minister of his Sardinian majesty at the court of Dresden, and afterwards at that of London. It relates to the military exercises of the Prussians in time of peace; and describes some of the martial spectacles exhibited by those well-disciplined troops.

In the second letter, addressed to count Aurelio Bernieri, the ingenious writer enquires, whether the line of battle be best with, or without intervals? He observes, it would be difficult to determine this matter by experience, as authorities may be produced in favour of either side of the question.

‘ All that I can do is to submit to your lordship’s better judgment a few observations upon the subject. Marshal Puysegur, who of late years has endeavoured to restore the art of war to its ancient splendour, has shewn how the order of battle, with a

full and uninterrupted line, is to be preferred to the line with intervals. The first reason he gives is that general one, that the greater number will have the advantage of the smaller. But, not content with what may be called a vague demonstration, he descends more into particulars, and gives one that is stricter and more conclusive. Two lines he supposes to engage, of an equal extent, one with intervals, the other without. As soon as they come to close action, those corps of the full line, which find themselves opposite to the intervals of the other, will pierce through those very intervals, and, wheeling to right and left, will attack those bodies in flank and rear, which are already engaged in front: so that the full line, by its very disposition, has the advantage over that with intervals.

‘ But how comes it that the Romans conquered with a different order; they who had so often to cope with brave and disciplined armies, which drew up in full line against them? Why did they prefer the order of battle with intervals to every other; they, who gave themselves up so much to the study of military affairs, and had more experience in that science than any other people of the known world? As you seem to be so inclined, let us endeavour to trace the cause of it.

‘ Armies are in our days usually drawn up in two lines; each line being four, or, what is more common, three deep: the distance between the lines is generally 150 toises, or 900 feet. Your lordship knows, that there are several reasons for placing the lines at such a distance from each other; first, that they may not be so easily flanked and surrounded by the enemy, who to do this would be obliged to make a considerable circuit, which would discover his design; to have room enough to march a battalion or more in front between the lines, in case it should be necessary to send them to the support of either wing of the army; and that in the action the second line should be beyond the reach of the enemy’s fire. The Romans drew up their armies in three lines, each being twelve, nine, or six deep at the least; and between the first and third line there was a distance of somewhat more than 400 feet. That this was nearly the distance, may be drawn from two circumstances; that their missile weapons carried about 500 feet, as we are informed by Vegetius, and that the triarii, who composed the third line, were no otherwise protected from the discharge of them, but by placing one knee on the ground, and covering themselves with their bucklers.

‘ Neither had they the same reasons as we have to leave such a space between their lines. Their defensive armour enabled them to make light of the darts and arrows of the enemy; and their maniples not being so numerous as our battalions, and occupying a very small front on account of their having so many in file, it was not requisite to leave so large an interval, to march two or three of them in front between each line of the army. Besides, the Romans, being accustomed to give battle at a small distance from their camp, were not apprehensive of being flanked

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by the enemy ; who, had he attempted it, would have been in danger of being taken in flank himself by the body that was left to defend the camp. Moreover, they sometimes took the precaution of digging a trench from their camp to each flank of the army.

‘ Now let us oppose to a Roman legion a body of Germans, for instance, drawn up without intervals ; and let us suppose, according to the position of marshal Puysegur, that the enemy will form the design of penetrating through the intervals of the Roman line, to attack the different cohorts or maniples on the flank and in the rear. By the way, they will not find it so easy, on account of their superior depth to that of our battalions. But let us suppose that they gain their point ; they will still have a very difficult game to play, in opposing the maniples of the second line, which are posted opposite to the intervals of the first : for the distance between the lines not being so much as 200 feet, and the Roman soldiers being exercised in the course, the maniples of the second line will soon charge the enemy, and surround him. He consequently falls into his own snare.

‘ This, if I mistake not, will account for the order of the Romans, with intervals in their line, not being liable to the same objections with ours. Besides, they had quickly the means of altering it : the second line being posted at so small a distance from the first, they could in a few moments bring up the maniples of the one into the intervals left in the other, and so form an entire line, either wholly or in part, as circumstances required it. It is even probable that the full line prevailed at length among the Romans ; and that Julius Cæsar with this very order made the conquest of Gaul, and performed those great actions which will ever be objects of admiration and study to military men ; for in his commentaries there is no mention of the *haftari*, the *principes*, or the *triarii*, nor the smallest shadow of that chequered order which was certainly used in the time of Scipio.’

In the next letter, written to the same person, the author treats of the column of the chevalier Folard. He informs us, that he has had the pleasure to hear this subject discussed, in conversations between his Prussian majesty and count de Saxe, who, a short time before his death, came to pay a visit to that monarch. At these entertainments, count Algarotti emphatically observes, that he might be said *epulis accumbere divum*. In respect of the column we are informed, those illustrious warriors agreed, that it was calculated rather for defence than for acting offensively ; that the only occasion on which it can attack, with any prospect of success, is when the enemy is entrenched. The strength of the column consisting in its bulk and solidity, in its weight and shock, it breaks through whatever stands in its way ; and the enemy, who waits its attack in the trenches,

gives it an opportunity of acting with all its advantages. Having forced its way into one part or more of the enemy's lines, it divides them into two or more bodies, and prevents them from joining or supporting each other. But our author observes, that it loses the advantage of attacking, which should always be the object of a commander, when his force will admit of it. Another inconvenience of the column is remarked to be, that the ranks and files being so closely condensed, the enemy's artillery pours the greater destruction among them.

Letter fourth, to signor don Giuseppe Pecis, relates to the intended expedition of Julius Cæsar against the Parthians; a subject on which that gentleman seems then to have been writing a treatise.

The succeeding letter is addressed to the same correspondent, and contains some anecdotes of Charles the Twelfth of Sweden; a prince who, as the count observes, 'was for a length of time the polar star of the military world, and will remain to after-ages its most dazzling meteor.'

The sixth letter treats of the taking of Bergen-op-Zoom; an event which, we are told, was entirely owing to the misconduct of the commandant. He neither made timely sallies, sprang his mines, nor gave any other interruption to the approaches of the enemy. He neither filled the ditch with water, nor, in a word, observed a single article of what was prescribed in a manuscript left by Coehorn, for the instruction of those who might have occasion to defend that fortress.

The seventh letter, written to signor Prospero Jackson, is employed on the military power of the European mercantile companies in Asia; the eighth is on admiral, afterwards lord Anson; the ninth, on the war begun in 1755, between England and France; the tenth, on the foundation of the war made against the king of Prussia by Austria, France, &c. and the eleventh, on the effects of the battle of Lobositz. In all these letters, the author, as may be supposed, shows great acquaintance with the views and situations of the several belligerent powers.

In the twelfth letter count Algarotti employs his pen on the military and political conduct of the late earl of Chatham, of whose extraordinary talents he is a great admirer.

' I myself saw this luminary of the age rise and expand itself in the most turbulent times that England ever experienced, while the opposition against sir Robert Walpole was in its highest fury. Being a soldier as well as an orator, the minister took from him his commission of cornet in a regiment of dragoons, for having spoken

spoken his mind too freely in parliament. As inaccessible to bribes as a Fabricius or a Curius, sober, indefatigable, firm in his designs, vigorous in executing them, nervous in his language, attentive to no other object but the glory of his nation, which he considers as his own, he has arrived by honourable means to that degree of greatness, which is seldom attained without mean intrigues and artifices at court.

‘ He is not much given to *finesse* in his political negotiations : with a heart full of zeal for the public good, and a mind firmly directed towards it, he attends only to essentials, and follows the concise and conclusive method of the Romans.’

Our author concludes with observing of Mr. Pitt, that

‘ Such a man as this, a Demosthenes in the parliament, an Epaminondas, a Themistocles, in the council of war, is worthy of co-operating with a Frederick. What the effect will be of their joint operations, after such great things atchieved separately, we shall soon have an opportunity of observing. My first wish at present is to have the pleasure of seeing you, and of conversing with you, at a distance from the vulgar croud, of actions, which will have so brilliant an appearance in the annals of the present age.’

‘ As a friend to virtue, and a votary of the Muses, let me persuade you to strike your lyre in honour of Pitt. If you think proper to take him for a subject, you will produce verses not inferior to those you composed in praise of Frederick, which even the most obstinate partisans of Austria admired so much as to get them by heart.’

The subjects of the succeeding letters are, the affair of Maxen ; the peace concluded in 1763, between England and France ; the military science of Virgil : the poem on the art of war ; and the military science of Nicholas Machiavel. The authority of Machiavel, however great in political disquisitions, has been considered as not of equal weight in what he has written on the military art ; but count Algarotti endeavours to show, that, though not a warrior by profession, he was well acquainted with the theory of the military science ; and that his observations will, in general, be found to coincide with experience ; a remark confirmed by many of the subsequent letters in the volume. They contain a number of observations which merit the attention of military gentlemen ; are written in an entertaining manner, and frequently enlivened with apposite poetical quotations.

*An Introduction to Natural Philosophy. [Concluded from Vol. liv. p. 287.]*

**I**N a former Review we considered the first volume of this useful and ingenious work, and we now resume the task of attending to the second. Mr. Nicholson has judiciously chosen to make his pupils first acquainted with those parts of natural philosophy which are well established and understood, and afterwards leads them with caution into those labyrinths in which the philosophers of our day are too frequently bewildered and lost. In this department of science the young student is not presented with an indigested heap of facts, neither is he tempted by the meretricious allurements of systems created by fancy but unsupported by experiment. A ready and correct habit of deducing consequences from events, accurate and illustrative arrangements, and a facility in discovering remote analogies, form the character of this part of the work.

In the middle of the last century, when the Aristotelian philosophy had newly given place to the visionary system of Des Cartes, a well-fancied hypothesis was esteemed no contemptible effort of the mind. The world was not then apprized of the facility with which an active imagination may arrange probabilities, and account for the appearances of nature, if accurate experiments be not continually referred to. But these hypotheses grew more and more out of fashion, as the number of them was continually increasing: and the establishment of the society under Boyle, sir William Petty, Dr. Seth Ward, Dr. Wilkins, Dr. Wallis, Dr. Wren, and others, which afterwards became the present Royal Society, contributed greatly to introduce the only true and rational method of philosophizing. Sir Isaac Newton, the activity and extent of whose mental powers are not more to be admired than that caution and modesty which prevented his misapplying them, completed the triumph of the experimental analysis of nature. His bold thoughts, and those imperfect views which the keenness of his intellects enabled him to make into the abyss of undiscovered science, were reserved by him till he could publish his *Queries*, with the expectation that others would put them to the test. All the world knows the consequence. A second Newton has not yet appeared; and as it is much easier to rest satisfied with an imperfect account of things, than to engage in the severe and arduous labour of enquiry, subsequent authors have not scrupled to assume those queries as established doctrine, upon which they have raised a variety of flimsy structures. System has appeared again in a new form;

and the philosophical theorists of the present age present their fancies to us under the modest denomination of queries, to which it is sufficiently apparent that they expect their gentle readers will answer in the affirmative. Others, on the contrary, and among them even several who have extended the bounds of science, and possess a well-earned reputation, are such mortal enemies to the very shadow or semblance of an hypothesis, that they present the public with a faithful, flat, and insipid diary of their proceedings, and leave them to divine the reasoning and motives that led them to make their experiments: so that a great part of their works must of necessity be useless to such philosophers as happen to be less trammelled in their particular pursuits than themselves. It is not our present purpose to point out instances: men of science will easily recollect them. We only mean to indicate the danger which natural philosophy is exposed to, from the prevalence of these modes. Equally disgusted with the affected candor, the inelegant luxuriance of the one party, and the confused journalizing of the other, we wish to see experiments and reasoning concomitant and mutually assisting each other. And while we thus advert to the past and present states of natural philosophy, it is a singular satisfaction to observe, that the author of the work before us is exempt from either of these faults. The great fund of scientific knowledge which he evidently possesses, places him far above the necessity of compiling a dry mass of mere facts; and the 'sincere and disinterested love of truth' by which he appears to be actuated, has prevented those conjectural irregularities, which an imagination as active, accompanied with a disposition less candid and cautious, might have been led into.

This second volume contains Sections 3. and 4. of the second book; and the third book, which consists of three sections. We shall attend to them in order.

Section 3. Book II. relates to Hydrostatics, or the effects which arise from the gravity of fluids. These effects are considered in a very concise and intelligible manner. In fact, the principles of this useful and entertaining branch of philosophy are such, that they may be elegantly deduced from a very few properties. Our author demonstrates, that the cause of fluidity does not depend on the spherical figure of its particles, as is supposed by many writers, but probably on their minuteness and imperfect cohesion, which he shews by an ingenious illustration. In this section the action of fluids is exemplified by the nature of their pressure; by the motion of the fluid arising from that pressure; by their action on bodies immersed in them; from which occasion is taken to speak of specific gravities; and by the resistance they afford to bodies moving in them.

Section 4. is upon the Atmosphere of Air. The general properties of air are explained, and the magnitude of the atmosphere deduced hydrostatically and optically. From the rarefaction of air by heat, the cause of winds is naturally inferred; and after giving an account of the general and periodical winds which prevail on the surface of the earth, our author proceeds to account for them, which he does with great clearness and perspicuity. This is followed by a chapter on Sound and Music. After this he explains the action of many instruments, in which the properties of the air are concerned, barometers, siphons, intermitting springs, pumps, fire-engines, wind-guns, and fountains; which are accompanied by a description of three steam-engines, the last of which is that excellent machine invented and perfected by Watt and Bolton of Birmingham. The author's instrument for measuring the depth of the sea, though imperfect, as he himself observes, is notwithstanding superior to any other we have yet seen. This chapter is concluded with an account of the diving-bell; and the last chapter in this section is concerning the Air-pump and its uses.

The first Section of Book the Third is upon Chemistry, a subject which till very lately has not been much cultivated by philosophers, being scarcely considered as a branch of the science. But the world is now aware of its importance, though very few treatises are extant which can be esteemed otherwise than professional. It is very far from being universally known, that a studious enquirer may obtain a knowledge of chemistry without building a laboratory or erecting furnaces; and that almost all philosophical processes in this science may be performed by a person of ingenuity with the help of small phials, retorts, crucibles, and a few portable furnaces, the expence of which is trifling. In reality, the great expence in all chemical pursuits is that of time, which, to those who have other duties to attend to, is of great consequence. But this objection holds equally against any abstracted pursuit whatsoever. To those who are already attached to this study, the excellent publications of Lewis, Beaumé, Macquer, Boerhaave, &c. will be interesting and instructive; but the only treatises we have met with, which are adapted to the capacities of beginners, with a peculiar attention to the philosophical application of this species of knowledge, are Dr. Watson's Essays and the book before us. Mr. Nicholson, at his entrance into this part of his undertaking, seems to be fully aware of its difficulty and importance; as appears by his preface, page 122.

‘ The phenomena which are explained in the foregoing part of this work, are chiefly such as depend on a very few first principles,

ciples, and are in general easily accounted for by a synthetical reference to them. But that part of natural philosophy which remains to be considered is still in the process of analization. It is difficult to abridge a science which is almost purely experimental, and which therefore consists of many facts and little theory; since every attempt at brevity must be attended with some omission, perhaps of importance. In this department of physics error surrounds us on all sides. When we attend to the specific properties of bodies, we continually find ourselves at a loss: and it is at present quite uncertain whether figure, density, progression, vibration, and other mechanical affections, which we observe in aggregate masses, be of any great consequence to the actions which take place among the particles. We shall therefore proceed to treat of chemistry with that diffidence and caution which the intricacy of the subject demands.

He defines chemistry to be 'a science which relates to those properties of bodies which seem to be specific, and do not apparently depend on any organization or evidently mechanical operation of their parts.' His first chapter is employed on the methods of decomposing bodies, which leads him to consider the mutations to which the cohesive attraction is subject. Solidity and fluidity are considered as properties of bodies which depend on their temperature; and he affirms or infers generally, that bodies are decomposed either by altering their temperature, or by the elective attraction of some other body. In the following chapter Heat is considered. It is defined, p. 131, to be 'a state or temperature in which the dimensions of uniform bodies are augmented; and the greater the augmentation the greater the heat is said to be.'—'But in what,' continues he, 'does this state consist? The increase of bulk is only a collateral circumstance. Does heat consist of particles of astonishing subtlety, which penetrate the densest bodies without difficulty,—which, being endued with a peculiar and rapid motion, are in themselves essentially fluid, and the cause of agitation and fluidity in other bodies?—or, is it no more than a certain motion or vibration impressed on the parts of bodies, which prevents contact and cohesion in proportion as it is more or less violent; and which, if increased beyond a certain degree, throws the particles out of the limits of attraction, and causes repulsion to take place? This subject is surrounded with difficulties.'

No direct notice is taken of the celebrated theory of heat, which a few years ago was received with so much applause; but a circumstance relative to the thermometrical admeasurement of heat is noted, which has been scarcely if at all attended to, though of great consequence to every theory. We are

are very ready to say, that a body is twice as hot as another, when the thermometer rises twice as much by contact of the one as it does by the increment. Now as Mr. Nicholson remarks, ‘ the expansion of bodies very probably follows some direct ratio of the quantity of heat ; but whether that ratio be simply as the increments of the bulks, or whether it follows any other ratio, has not yet been determined.’ To this we may add likewise, that it has not been determined, whether the increments of different bodies exposed to the same degrees of heat are in the same ratio.

Mr. Nicholson has not chosen to avow any particular opinion concerning heat ; but he seems inclined to reject the hypothesis of a fluid called heat or fire, and to prefer the doctrine of its being merely motion or vibration. To this effect he observes, p. 133.

‘ What can be more natural than to suppose that the parts of bodies are put into a vibrating motion by the swift and repeated strokes of the particles of light ? — Can the collision of flint and steel be performed without a very violent agitation at the place of contact ? — And is there not the highest probability, when the particles of two fluids, for example water and the vitriolic acid, rush together by means of a strong affinity, that a great intestine motion must take place before the parts are so respectively situated as that their mutual tendency shall be satisfied as much as circumstances admit ? It is scarcely hypothetical then to affirm, that heat is always accompanied with an intestine motion of the parts of bodies. And if this intestine motion be of itself sufficient to account for the phenomena of heat, why should we multiply causes and call in the assistance of a fluid, to which we must give a number of surprising properties, namely, continual activity, essential fluidity, and a subtilty so amazing, as to enable it repeatedly, without a possibility of deflection, to pass through the densest bodies without leaving a trace of its having been there ?

‘ It is true that obscurity will always attend speaking concerning a subject which is very little known. We do not know the nature of this motion, nor how it is propagated, but its existence can hardly be doubted ; and when we look without prejudice into the regions of conjecture, it appears at least as easy to conceive, that bodies may be constructed to vibrate more or less readily as that they should have a greater or less capacity for imbibing a fluid called heat.

‘ On the other hand it must be confessed that mere motion or its absence seems insufficient to account for the cold produced during the combination of water with sal armoniac, or that very intense cold which is obtained by the evaporation of ether.’

This account of heat is succeeded by an enquiry into the nature of combustion, which naturally leads to a description of the

the methods of conducting chemical processes either by the dry or moist way. In the management of this business, the matter is so well digested and occasionally illustrated with remarks, which, though they seem to flow from the subject, yet display a true spirit of philosophical enquiry, that the reader is made acquainted with the terms of art imperceptibly, and even entertained with that part of science which in general is found dull and fatiguing. It is observable, that the examples made use of are always such as do not pre-suppose any acquired knowledge of the subject beyond what has been before laid down in the treatise itself. This very necessary circumstance, as we have formerly observed, is every where carefully attended to. In this and the foregoing chapter the phenomena arising from fixity, volatility, solution, precipitation, fermentation, and the uses to which they are practically applied, are generally noticed and explained.

The Chemical Elements form the subject of the third chapter. Mr. Nicholson allows it to be exceedingly probable, that all bodies may be composed out of a very few elements; and that these sensible differences may arise only from the proportions of each that obtain in the several combinations. He likewise allows, that the general method of abstracting is of great service in systematizing and directing our future enquiries. But, at the same time, after observing that many respectable philosophers have perhaps too much indulged a passion for theoretical conjecture on this subject, he affirms that it is impossible, from the nature of things, for us ever to be assured that we are arrived at the elements or first principles of bodies. He grounds this assertion on the following reasoning.

‘ Since that separation of the principles of bodies in which the chemical analysis consists, can only be effected by means of the elective attractions, or by heat, it is evident that instances must occur in which we shall be unable to obtain it. For example: suppose two principles of equal fixity, or so fixed as to endure without alteration the strongest heat we can produce, be combined together by an elective attraction, which in each is stronger than its elective attraction to any other body, how are these principles to be separated? If they be exposed to heat, they will either rise together unaltered, or both remain fixed; and if any third body in nature be added, no decomposition can take place; for, by the condition, the two combined principles attract each other more strongly than they do any other body. Here it may, on the contrary, be observed, that we may come at the knowledge of the elements by composition; for if any two bodies, when combined, shall produce a compound altogether similar to the body under examination, we may from thence infer that it is composed of the same principles: but, in answer, it must be noticed that the existence of such uncombined principles being a circumstance

circumstance totally unconnected with and independent of the principal fact, and the making the experiment being in a very great measure casual, we must, in by far the most part of such instances, be subject to uncertainty ; and that more particularly, because the method of composition supposes a simplicity in the principles made use of, which can never be proved, since the method of analysis has been shewn to be insufficient for that purpose.'

From these and similar considerations he infers that the general division or mode of classing bodies is not of much consequence to science, in its present imperfect state ; and afterwards proceeds to enumerate such bodies as experiment has shewn to be much more simple than all others, and which may be regarded as first principles till future researches shall farther decompose them. These are water, phlogiston, earths, acids, and alkalies ; which are accurately characterized by their leading properties : and the chapter is concluded by a table of dense substances, produced by combining them respectively. We suppose the author has made use of the term *dense* substances, in order to avoid the consideration of those combinations made in the form of air, which constitutes the subject of an entire section.

The various species of earths, acids, and alkalies are enumerated, and the methods of procuring them explained in the three following chapters. And, collaterally related to the subject, we find accounts of many combinations, as pyrites, vitriols, sulphur, phosphorus, and the remarkably striking phenomenon of the accension of oils by the sudden infusion of the nitrous acid.

Compound bodies are considered by Mr. Nicholson under two general divisions ; namely, inflammable and uninflammable. The first class he observes ' consists of such as possess the principles of inflammability to such a degree that they may be decompounded by the act of combustion. These are ardent spirit, ether, oils, resins, sulphurs, metals, coal, and have no general term by which they may be denoted. The latter class consisting of combinations of water, earth, acids, and alkalies ; and if they possess phlogiston, being united with it in such a manner as to be incombustible, may be properly enough denoted under the general name of salts.' These are very copiously discussed in the following chapters, and the subject is closed with a general table of affinities. A chapter on Magnetism concludes the section.

Section 2. is employed on the newly-discovered Properties of Air produced by various processes. This rational and concise account of the present state of our knowledge of these subjects, will be of great use to those who have not leisure to systematize and digest the many important facts which are dispersed

persed in the writings of Dr. Priestley and others, who have cultivated this branch of natural philosophy. It must likewise be acceptable, as an arrangement of facts, even to those who are considerably versed in this study. There is a circumstance relating to the admeasurement of the rarity of atmospherical air alluded to by Mr. Nicholson, which seems to deserve some enquiry and attention. It is a well known fact, that the purest air is susceptible of the greatest diminution before it becomes perfectly noxious by means of any phlogistic process carried on in it; and every philosopher at present avails himself of Dr. Priestley's elegant invention of applying nitrous air to that purpose. But in expressing the result of any trial it is usual to set down the measure of the bulk of the air so diminished, in numbers which must have some inverted relation to its purity. It cannot be disputed but that this method is as faithful a description of the matter of fact as any other; yet it is likewise indubitable, that the preference ought to be given to that mode of expression which shall, at the same time, denote the degree of purity in the specimen of air put to the test. This is probably as the quantity of the diminution, and not as the residue, after phlogistication. On this subject Mr. Nicholson observes, p. 358.

' If the purity of any given portion of air be as the diminution it suffers by phlogistication; and if the quantity of nitrous air required to saturate it be likewise in the same proportion, the purity of air tried by nitrous air will always be in the direct proportion of the diminution of the whole mixture, provided the quantity of nitrous air added be more than sufficient to saturate it. That air is the purest which produces the greatest effects during the time of its phlogistication; namely, that in which, *cæteris paribus*, animals live longest, or the greatest quantity of a combustible body is consumed.'

The third and last section relates to Electricity. The author begins by shewing the simplest method of producing electric appearances; and employs an entire chapter on the electric matter, and the relations which all bodies have to it, either as conductors or non-conductors. He thinks it evident, from all our senses, that electricity is real matter, and not a mere property. The two kinds of electricity which are usually termed positive and negative, naturally offer themselves in the discussion of the attentions requisite for exciting electric bodies; as does likewise the figure of electrified conductors, the mutations of which produce various phenomena, that are pointed out. In the course of this chapter the reader is made acquainted with electric attraction and repulsion.

The course of the electric matter through the common air, and the air very much rarefied, is next attended to. The figure

of the common spark, and the beautiful manner in which electricity pervades an imperfect vacuum, are appearances which are worthy of great attention in the philosopher who is desirous of penetrating deeply into this part of science. It is known that electricity forces conducting bodies into its path. This is among the general positions laid down in this section, and is accompanied with an experiment, which, for its novelty, as well as the interesting consequences to which it seems to point, we cannot help quoting. After observing the conical figure which a drop of water assumes when electrified, and that it emits long sparks and wets bodies held near it, he proceeds, p. 388.

' If the same experiment be made with melted sealing-wax, the appearance is very peculiar and amusing. The sealing-wax must be dropped on or stuck to the side of the prime conductor, and afterwards melted with a candle; then, if the conductor be positively electrified, the drop of wax becomes pointed, and shoots an almost invisibly fine thread into the air to the distance of more than a yard. This thread is electrical, and would probably be longer were it not for the sudden cooling of the wax. Whether the same effect would follow on negative electrification is worth the enquiry; but the want of a convenient and strong negative power has prevented the writer of this work from trying it. It is observable, that the long sparks above mentioned with the drops of water, are not seen when the drop is negatively electrified, a light only appearing at the point of the drop. But as the methods used in the experiment did not produce a negative state as strong as the positive one, the constancy of the effect requires to be confirmed by more favorable experiments. Thus much is fact, that the same drop of water which, when laid on a cylinder of metal and connected with the positive prime conductor, emitted sparks five or six inches long, did not produce the least spark when uninsulated and held near the prime conductor, but drew off the electricity exactly as a metallic point would have done.'

The electricity produced by bringing a conductor into the vicinity of another conductor in an electric state, is considered and ingeniously connected with the charging of electric or non-conducting bodies, which our author has chosen, for the sake of simplicity, in the form of plates. The phenomenon of the electrophorus, that has been supposed by many to be unaccountable on the present received principles, is shewn to be an easy consequence of the reasoning made use of by Mr. Nicholson on the subject of the electricity produced without communication. And, in the subsequent chapter, he makes it evident that most of the electric phenomena are consequences of the air being charged; and that the effects of pointed bodies depend on circumstances of the same nature. The account of the electricity produced by art is finished with a description of

the methods of measuring the intensity of electricity, and some other means of procuring it, which the theory we are in possession of is unable to explain.

Natural electricity, or those appearances which take place without the concurrent operation of man, is next attended to. The Torpedo, the Electric Eel, the history of the discovery of the Sameness of Lightning and Electricity, the Ignis Fatuus, Waterspouts, and Earthquakes, are the important subjects classed under this title.—The author concludes his work with observing the rapid progress which the knowledge of electricity has made within the last half century; and expresses his hope that a similar period will extend its application, and afford us a more perfect acquaintance with many of the present secrets of nature, in which it is more than probable this great and active power has a share.

After the copious description we have given of the plan and execution of the work before us, it will not be necessary to add any general remarks. The subject is of too great importance to require much recommendation, if well treated; and we sincerely approve of the exertions of Mr. Nicholson, who, in an undertaking where others have shewn themselves to be mere compilers, has given proofs of originality and genius, which we hope he will continue to employ to the advantage of the public.

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*Thoughts on the Naval Strength of the British Empire. Part II.*  
8vo. 1s. Cadell.

OF the Thoughts formerly published under the present title by Mr. Sinclair, we gave an account in our Review for May last, since which time this ingenious gentleman has further prosecuted his interesting subject. Having already endeavoured to evince the superiority of Britain, in many natural and political circumstances tending to the acquisition of naval power, he now enquires how far the obstacles commonly urged against any increase of our navy, are well founded. These are, the supposed difficulty of procuring more ships and more seamen. In regard to the procuring of seamen, Mr. Sinclair proposes, that this important charge should be committed to the management of a particular board, to be instituted for the purpose, and which should act under the controul of the admiralty.

In the second place, says he, it is proposed, that instead of those regulating captains and press-gangs, which are at present spread along the coasts of the island (who, when idle, are a useless and heavy expence to the state; or, when they do procure men for the service, deter other sailors from voluntary

rily entering, by the violent and outrageous manner in which they conduct themselves), that subordinate officers to the said marine board shall be established in all the different districts of the kingdom, so that every part of the island may be under the inspection of some one or other of these officers.

‘ In the third place, it is proposed, that the said board, and its subordinate officers, shall be obliged to furnish the admiralty, from time to time, with an exact and authentic account of the number of seafaring people in all the different districts of the kingdom ; who, for that purpose, shall be compelled, under certain penalties, to give in their names, and places of abode, to the marine officer appointed to receive them : shall transmit also, with as much expedition as possible, to their proper place of rendezvous, the fair proportion of seamen which each district is ordered to supply : and lastly, shall give every possible assistance to the seamen belonging to their district, for procuring their pay, their effects, or their share of prize-money to themselves, their family, or relations.’

Towards raising the number of seamen wanted for the public service, Mr. Sinclair suggests that the subordinate officers of the proposed board should beat up in their respective districts for volunteers, and offer such a bounty as the nation may be able to afford. If this method should prove ineffectual, he proposes, as the next expedient, that the officers should be directed to lay an embargo upon all vessels, of every size and denomination, until the proportion of seamen is furnished. If this measure should also fail of producing the desired effect, he advises that the officers shall next proceed, in the presence of two or more justices of the peace, to cast lots which of the seamen in the neighbourhood shall be compelled to serve ; and, in case of refusal, that the officers shall be enabled, with the assistance of the civil power, and, if necessary, of the military, to compel the recusants to enter into the public service. But he entirely disapproves of press-gangs, as a barbarous mode of compulsion, and what gives the seamen a distaste of the navy. Our author proposes, that each of the seamen thus compelled by lot, should not be obliged to serve above three years, unless peculiar exigencies should not admit of such indulgence.

Among the advantages attending the proposed establishment, Mr. Sinclair observes, that it would put an end to the impress-service, the expence of which, from the first of October 1780 to the first of October 1781, amounted to upwards of 214,000*l.* It appears from our author’s enquiry, that the number of men thus procured was only 7081 ; and that, during the same space

of time, 8844 seamen and landmen entered voluntarily, whose bounty amounted to little more 29,000l.

In respect to building of ships, Mr. Sinclair differs very much in opinion from those, who consider the doing it by voluntary subscription as unconstitutional or dangerous to the liberties of the kingdom. But as such contributions have proved inadequate, he proposes that a particular tax on houses should be levied for the building of ships. Ship-wrights, he observes, might be procured without much difficulty; and that, in the king's yard, a third more work might be executed than is at present, if the shipwrights were allowed, as in private yards, to build by task, or piece-work.

Mr. Sinclair, after urging the natural and political means of increasing the maritime power of the nation, concludes with proposing, that, as an incitement to the courage of naval officers, who ought to be actuated by nobler motives than the thirst of prize-money, a naval order should be instituted, for distinguishing such as signalized themselves in the service of their country.

This ingenious member of parliament appears to have bestowed great and laudable attention on the subject of naval affairs; and while others are employed in forming schemes of opposition, he has the merit of enquiring, with unremitting assiduity, by what means to promote the most important interests of his country.

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*A Treatise on the Synochus Atrabiliosa, a contagious Fever which raged at Senegal in the Year 1778. To which is prefixed a Journal of the Weather during the Prevalence of that Disease, &c. By T. P. Schotte, M. D. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Murray.*

THE coast of Africa fills every mind with terror; and to be banished to it is considered only as a respite, which is fully compensated by a more lingering as well as a more painful and complicated death. It has been a very general and we believe a well-founded opinion, that this fatality is increased by the voluntary misconduct of the thoughtless and the necessary irregularities of the military adventurer. While the present treatise confirms the opinion in general, it describes a disease whose fatality no prudence could always elude, and whose rapidity no art could delay. We have had few medical histories of the diseases of this fatal spot; and the present work is valuable on account of the scarcity of real observers at Senegal, as well as for the attention and abilities of the author.

The fever which he describes is of the putrid kind, with copious evacuations of bile, generally black; and though distinguished by a violence of which there are few examples, yet began with inflammatory symptoms. It seems the general tendency of nature to resist every poison; and, in a pretty extensive enquiry, we have found but two or three epidemics which have been entirely free from some appearances of inflammation. It attacked with little warning; but was at first attended, besides the usual signs of fever, with extreme debility and anxiety. The bilious vomiting soon came on, and continued incessantly. Hiccup, bleedings from the nose and other parts, immediately succeeded; the pulse sunk, and the patient usually died about the third or fourth day. Those chiefly who survived this period, had the distinguishing marks of putrid fever, viz. petechiae and vibices: a lurid countenance only attended the earlier days, but at last coma, and every appearance of the blood being entirely dissolved, came on, and finished the horrid scene with the most dreadful symptoms.

In this situation art was in general an useless spectator; every remedy failed of success, because the vomiting, which no medicines could quiet, prevented their operations. It was, we believe, an observation of Sydenham, that obstinate vomiting in fevers was to be cured only by raising a sweat. This circumstance seems not to have occurred to our author; but what nature had dictated in milder climates and less urgent circumstances, might have failed of opposing the fury of the present epidemic. Our author observes, that sometimes profuse sweats came on, without relieving the fever; and he would doubtless have mentioned the cessation of the vomiting, if it had occurred. In the latter stages, sweats were frequent, but they were entirely colliquative. Blisters had little effect; they evidently tended to disseminate the disease, by the horrible stench of the discharge, and sometimes hastened the event by a supervening mortification. Bleeding was evidently hurtful; yet, in two cases, profuse and continued haemorrhages seemed to relieve. Art cannot easily imitate these efforts; yet the attentive practitioner will recollect the conduct of Sydenham in the plague, and the happy consequences of the rash and even desperate practice of Dover, in a putrid fever.

Our author, at last, seemed more lucky in relieving the most distressing symptoms of this fever; and as he recommends a similar practice to remove vomiting in the cholera morbus, we shall give his sentiments in his own words.

‘ There is, however, one medicine (I mean opium) which, though it has no power of removing the cause of the disease, is endowed with a particular virtue of causing such a diminution of

of sensation and irritability of the nerves, as to produce by this means a cessation of the convulsive motions of the stomach and its adjacent parts, and render nature in a manner inactive, while its effects last, by which means an opportunity presents itself to give such remedies, as are calculated for the cure of the disease itself. Opium, therefore, or laudanum (which being in a liquid state answers rather better) is to be given in proper doses, and they are to be repeated as often as they are thrown up again, until the vomiting ceases. As soon as this is obtained, the bark is to be given immediately, and to prevent a return of the vomiting, laudanum is to be joined with it occasionally. After the stomach seems to be entirely settled, the bark or its tinctures, (among which that of Huxham deserves the preference) are to be given in proper vehicles without laudanum. Great care is to be taken in the mean time, that the secreted bile and perhaps other accumulated morbid humours are not detained in the intestines. If nature, therefore, should be slow in evacuating them the natural way, she is to be assisted by proper remedies. But that the stomach may not be irritated anew by stimulating medicines, and that the acrid bile, when poured into the duodenum, may be drawn downwards, this is best effected by clysters. However, when every thing goes on favourably, and the stomach has been at ease for some days, a laxative of manna, rhubarb, and cream of tartar, or the like, may be given. The drink during the fever should be cooling, and such as experience has proved to be antiseptic. Barley-water, with the rob of lemons or their juice, sweetened with a sufficient quantity of sugar or hohey, is very proper. But as soon as the fever is conquered, the patient should take now and then a glass of wine, but particularly Rhenish, if it is to be had, and some proper food to support his strength. Wine becomes at this period an excellent medicine, though I found it (except perhaps Rhenish) do much harm during the fever. The best food, at the same time is such, as is not only of easy digestion, but also able to strengthen the body, and to contribute towards mending the ill state of the blood. But as there is not a great choice of food at Senegal, either thick water-gruel, diluted with a good quantity of Rhenish wine, and sweetened with a sufficient proportion of sugar, or some gruels of Guinea corn, which the natives prepare very well, with the addition of those two articles, may answer the purpose.

Though I recommend this method of cure as the most effectual, and though I would pursue it, if I was ever to find myself in the same predicament again, yet I have not sufficient proofs or experience of its efficacy, to prompt me to have an entire reliance on its future success in the like cases. I found it succeed in two patients, but I also saw it fail in one. The last, however, was quite exhausted by the vomiting, before I gave him the laudanum. It was on the third day of his being taken ill; and after it had put a stop to the vomiting as well as the singultus, I gave him the bark. On the fourth and fifth day his

body, but particularly his face, began to swell in such a manner, that his eyes became quite closed by it, and the breast turned of a yellow, green, and blue colour. He resembled a corpse in the highest degree of putrefaction, in which the air has begun to disengage itself and puff up the skin, a circumstance which I had not observed in any other patient. On the fifth day a singultus, or rather a belching, took place again, and he expired on the seventh.

‘ At the time when I found this method succeed in the two above mentioned patients, the ravage of the disease had much abated, and I had, therefore, no opportunity of ascertaining its good effects by repeated trials; nor do I know, for this reason, whether the success is to be ascribed to this mode of treatment, or perhaps to a wholesome change taking place in the air.’

The prophylaxis is a matter of singular importance, where the cure is desperate. The remote causes on which it must chiefly depend are, in our author’s opinion, irregularities from inattention, or the sudden changes of temperature in the air, induced by the tornados, while the body is predisposed to a putrid fever, by a very warm climate and salt provisions. He thinks, in some cases, that these causes are alone sufficient to produce a fever; and that they probably had this effect at Goree, which, from its situation, is free from inundations and marsh effluvia. It is, indeed, highly probable that the disease was communicated by infection from the neighbouring island; and though the existence and operation of marsh miasmata in producing fevers is, in many instances, satisfactorily demonstrated, yet there are many epidemics whose causes are equally mysterious with those observed by Hippocrates, and which induced him to call their origin ‘ something divine.’ The prophylaxis, however, which is founded on these supposed causes, is by no means to be neglected; where they can be properly obviated, an attention to them will be certainly proper. In other respects the author, as usual, recommends free living and the use of wine, without excess; but he adds, that the only man who has repeatedly visited Senegal, and resided there with impunity, never drank any thing but water. In fact, there can be no single rule to guard against infection during the progress of epidemics. Every method which promotes the general health, and the several evacuations from the secretory organs, must be attended to, and together only will they be effectual. Our author, in several circumstances, confirms the observations of Dr. Lind, and mentions others which had never occurred to him; so that from these authors it would be easy to extract some useful rules, either to guard against infection, or obviate it as soon as received. His other prophylactics were sarsaparilla in decoction, and the highly concentrated

concentrated acetous acid. The latter he usually dropped on sal. polycrest, or vitriolated tartar; and the salts by that means were made to exhale a most penetrating, sour, and volatile smell. The acid alone, when highly dephlegmated, is so exceedingly volatile, that no stopper can entirely exclude its odour; the volatility would therefore be soon repressed by its attracting the water from the atmosphere, were it not united to salts which have very little affinity to that fluid. In this way these salts are sometimes sold for the crystallized acid; and there is much reason to suppose that those crystals, which were procured by Mr. Lauraguais, proceeded from accidental impurities.

The author has furnished us with many circumstances relating to this fatal coast, of which we have not hitherto been informed. The range of the thermometer was from about  $64^{\circ}$  to  $91^{\circ}$ . The barometer varies so little as scarcely to deserve notice; but the thermometer, when compared with one of Ramsden's, was about  $\frac{3}{4}$  of a degree too low. The corrected degree of heat is, however, moderate, in comparison of what it has been represented; the mean heat of Senegal having been said to be  $112^{\circ}$ , and its greatest heats from  $118^{\circ}$  to  $120^{\circ}$ . It is evident, therefore, that the fatal epidemics cannot arise from the excess of heat; for the southern parts of Europe, and the whole island of Jamaica, are equally hot, and experience greater and more sudden variations with impunity; and there are no circumstances mentioned by our author which do not often concur, without the dreadful consequences of a *synochus atrabiliosa*. But while philosophy hesitates in uncertainty, it may afford a pleasing reflection to humanity, that there is no insurmountable obstacle to the healthiness of that climate. If the dreadful prospects which it affords did not deter the intelligent observer, we might probably soon be furnished with sufficient precautions to defend us from the fatal tendency of its diseases. Our author has considerably assisted future practitioners, and deserves high commendation.

There is a short reflection, at the end, on the gum trade of Senegal. The author thinks it might be more advantageously carried on by a company, which possessed an exclusive right to the commerce of that coast; but on this subject it will not be expected that we should give any opinion, from the very indecisive evidence before us. Dr. Schotte apologizes for his language, since he is not a native of England, and had originally written his essay in Latin. We own that it is not unexceptionable; but it is clear and perspicuous, and superior in this respect to some works which are often thought to require no apology.

*Joannis Nathaniel Lieberkuhn Dissertationes quatuor. Cura & Studio Joannis Sheldon, Anatomiæ Praelectoris, &c. 4to.  
5s. Johnson.*

THE very accurate and industrious author of these *Dissertationes* was a Prussian, whose inclinations early led him to cultivate philosophy and anatomy; but it was only about his twenty-fifth year that he was permitted entirely to indulge them. His acquisitions before that period had, indeed, been considerable; and after it, he pursued his studies successively at Hall, Jena, Leyden, Paris, and London. He was the friend of Linnæus, Gaubius, and Van Swieten, and much respected by Boerhaave. He returned to Berlin, by the express command of the king, in the year 1740, when he was nearly thirty years of age, and died of a peripneumony, about sixteen years afterwards.

This is a very short account of our author, extracted from the *Memoir* in the *Leipsic Commentaries*, which is prefixed to these *Dissertationes*. They have hitherto been little known in this country, and Mr. Sheldon has been very usefully employed in their republication. Our editor, who purposes to publish a very full description of the lymphatic system, could not have given a more suitable introduction, whether we regard some of the discoveries communicated in these tracts, or the means by which they have been made. There are four *dissertationes*. The first is the author's *Thesis*, published at Leyden, on the structure of the valve of the colon, and the use of the *processus vermicularis*; the second, on the structure and action of the *villi* of the small intestines of the human body; the third, on the proper methods of discovering the structure of the viscera; the fourth, on the anatomical microscope. The two former are in Latin, the latter in French.

We must not, for various reasons, enlarge on the contents of these tracts.—It will be enough to mention, in the plainest manner, the object of each. The valve of the colon is now well understood; the use of the vermiciform process has not been sufficiently explained.—Our author thinks that it is the necessary consequence of the termination of the *cœcum*; a cylindrical canal, where a *sphincter* is not necessary, can only terminate by the gradual diminutions of the diameter of the circular fibres; and this gradual diminution will produce an appearance similar to the vermiciform process. It is plentifully covered with glands on its internal surface, to prevent any stagnation of the fæces in this narrow cone. The *villi* of the intestines he seems to have injected with care, and to have dissected with accuracy. They are composed of an artery and a vein,

vein, whose course is short, and which very readily communicate with each other. These are attended by a nerve; but the chief part of each is a lymphatic vessel, whose aperture our author has distinctly seen in dissections of morbid bodies. It is at its opening very minute, but soon enlarges so as to form a little vesicle. Between the villi, at the base, are little globular bodies, which our author found to be glandular; and these are probably the follicles which separate the mucus of the intestines. They are more numerous than the villi, in the proportion of one to eight. This subject is pursued, and many curious particulars elucidated. By his calculations, which, though not exact, are probably within the truth, we find that if all the lacteals are continually filled, and their action fully exerted, they can convey twenty-five pounds of chyle to the blood in the space of an hour.—It would be unjust to blame our author for a few mistakes, which subsequent discoveries have pointed out. His judgment and anatomical address are very considerable, and his language nervous and perspicuous. Without aiming at elegance, it strongly impresses the ideas which the author would communicate; and almost places the objects before the eyes of the reader. There are also three plates, neatly and accurately executed, with full descriptions.

The other essays it is not easy to analyze, or to explain, without the plate of the microscope. His instrument for this purpose is skilfully contrived. We cannot, however, caution anatomists with too much earnestness against trusting the representations of even a simple lens, without the repeated examination of different persons, who are not aware of the objects intended to be shewn. We have been frequently witnesses of the most ridiculous mistakes which have arisen from an author's eagerness to establish a preconceived opinion; and, were it necessary, we could point out some errors of this kind in the most respectable observers. It will add to the credit of Mr. Lieberkuhn's microscope to observe, that he has in some instances even detected the inaccuracies of the celebrated Lewenhoeck.

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*Memoirs of Agriculture, and other economical Arts.* By Robert Dossie, Esq. Vol. III. 8vo. 6s. in Boards. Nourse.

WE are at last presented with a continuation of the transactions of the very respectable Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce; but we still observe no memorials of a later date than the year 1776, though the society have proceeded in the execution of their useful plan. Some satisfactory reasons are given for the delay, but as these are chiefly surmounted, we hope to receive the conti-

nuation in a short time.—The best intentions seldom, however, escape without censure ; and the purest motives have been stigmatized with a real or an imaginary stain in the execution. The society have felt the influence of envy, or the disgusts of disappointed ambition. It has been alleged that their repository is the gulf which receives all improvements, and from which they seldom return ; that their rewards are guided by partial views ; and their enormous expences often squandered without a proportional object. It is not our business to enter on their defence ; but we believe the charges to have little foundation. It is not their fault, if the authors of improvements sometimes look no farther than the premium, and neglect its object when they have received the reward. The world in general seldom decides with liberality, or judges with candor. Each person looks with pleasure on the studies which have engaged his own attention, and considers the encouragement of others as an injudicious prodigality, or a trifling refinement. As these prejudices have occasioned some of the obloquy with which the society has been distinguished, so they have occasioned no little difficulty to us in selecting an extract of this performance, which should at once be a specimen of their attention and diligence. We shall therefore give a summary of the whole volume.

‘ Account of the Culture, Produce, and Qualities of Siberian Barley.

‘ Account of the Culture, Produce, and Qualities of Spring Wheat, Switzerland Wheat, or Bled de Mars.

‘ Certificates and Accounts of Wheat sown in Spring, in which the Particulars of the Culture, and the Produce and Quality of the Grain are specified, in order to the determining how far that Practice may be occasionally advantageous.

‘ Account of Trials at large, made to determine the comparative Advantages of the Drill and Broad-cast Methods of Culture of Wheat and Lucerne ; and of an Experiment to discover what Increase may be obtained from a Grain of Wheat in one Year, from repeated Transplantations.

‘ Certificates and Accounts of the Culture of Beans and Turneps—Account of the Culture of Parsneps for feeding Cattle—Account of the Culture and Preservation in Winter of the Vegetables proper for feeding Hogs—and Certificate of cultivating the Turnep-rooted Cabbage, and Observations on its Utility.

‘ Accounts of the Methods of rearing Calves without Milk, or saving it after a short Time.

‘ Observations on the Damage done to arable Land, by taking off Stones from the Surface ; and an Account of a Method of preventing Blights on Fruit-trees, and esculent Plants.

‘ Accounts of the respective Culture and Cure of Madder.

‘ Account

‘ Account of a Botanic Garden at St. Vincent’s.—Certificate of a Production of Indigo in East Florida, with an Account of the Culture and Process.—Account of the Culture and Preparation of Samples of Rhubarb.

‘ Principles of an improved Plough.—Method of discovering the Excellence of Wheel Carriages.—Account of the Construction and the Advantages of a Plough with a circular Coulter.—Description and Manner of Construction of a Flat-arch for the Cielings of Houses, or other Buildings, to prevent the Communication of Fire.—Account of a cheap and effectual Method of making and repairing Banks, to prevent the overflowing of the Land by Sea or great River Waters.

‘ Directions for cultivating Ash on moory or boggy Lands lying waste.—Account of the Utility of cultivating Winter Vetches.—Observations on the Use of a Bull Team.—A farther Account of the Culture and Uses of the Cluster Potatoe.—Observations on the Prospect of Advantage in cultivating in England the Maize, commonly called Turkey or Indian Wheat.—Abstracts of Letters about Crops of Spring Wheat, and Cluster Potatoes.

‘ Account of the Nature and Culture of Borecale ; and its Uses in feeding neat Cattle and Sheep.—Method of manuring Land by Means of putrified Rain-water.—Two Recipes for making Ointments to cure the Scab in Sheep, and to kill Ticks and other Vermin lodging in their Wool.

‘ Account and Description of a Machine for dividing Spaces, and rendering the Practice of Planting and Setting more expeditious and exact than by any Method hitherto used.—Description of a new Drill-plough for setting Wheat, or other Grain and Seed, upon Flag or tempered Land.—Account and Description of a Machine, or Bellows, for fumigating and destroying Insects on Cucumbers, Melons, and Fruit Trees.

‘ Account of a new Establishment in England for the Manufacture of Chip-hats, from a particular Sort of Willow cultivated for that Purpose.—Letter upon the profitable Application of an improved Method of refining Pig or cast Iron, and making Bar Iron for Guns, Anchors, &c. as likewise for producing that clean and white Iron wanted for small Work and Toys.—A Method of preventing the hurtful Effects of the Fumes of Mercury in the Operation of Water-gilding on Metals.—Account of some Methods of cleaning Ivory, with Attempts of restoring discoloured Ivory to an agreeable white State, and taking out accidental Stains.—Farther Explanation of the cheap and effectual Method of embanking and stopping up Breaches in Banks and Dams, to prevent the overflowing of Lands by the Sea, or by Rivers.—Abstract of the Communication of a Method for improving waste Land.

‘ A list of Premiums, Bounties, and Rewards, bestowed on various Subjects in Drawing, Etching, Engraving, Painting, and Modelling, &c.—Catalogue of the Casts of antique and modern Statues, Busts, &c. in the Gallery of the Duke of Richmond,

‘ Lists of Premiums and Bounties bestowed on various Objects in Agriculture, Mechanics, Manufactures, Chemistry, and Trade, from 1767 to 1776.—Summary Account of Rewards given in the several classes of subjects.

The rest of the volume consists of the names of those who have received the premiums for their performances in different branches of the polite arts; with some account of their future destinations, where they could be ascertained; and the lists of premiums and bounties bestowed on various objects in agriculture, mechanics, manufactures, chemistry, and trade. From its institution to the year 1776, we find the society have expended above forty-eight thousand pounds !

In our Review of this volume we were particularly attracted by the accounts of the Siberian barley, or rather wheat (for it is a species of wheat), and the cluster-potatoe. The large increase of the former, and its utility both for bread and malt, render it a most valuable article; and we chiefly noticed it, because an opinion has prevailed, that, though its whole period of fructification be short in comparison with that of our common wheat, yet that we had not sun enough in a given time to bring it to perfection. We find, however, that this is a mistake; and we have also been informed, that it has been introduced with considerable advantages to New England, and the neighbouring provinces of America. As citizens of the world, we rejoice at their success in this very necessary article; we may have still more reason to triumph if the renewed bonds of friendship and affection make them again boast of the name of Englishmen.

While Rome invested with absolute authority the dictator whom she had taken from the plough, Britain can boast of its Cincinnatus in general Elliot. The man whom heroes have looked on with envy, whose very enemies have contributed to extend his praises, whom the world regards with wonder and reverence—we here behold as a more humble, but not less useful character, cultivating the Siberian barley. In the eye of a philosopher, indeed, he is probably more amiable as the man than as the hero; but even in the scenes of war his humanity will be remembered, while his intrepidity and firmness may be forgotten.

The cluster-potatoe will probably be highly valuable as a nourishing food, which multiplies in the poorest ground to a very considerable degree. We wish to see its culture extended, and its properties more generally known; for if they be only used as fodder for cattle, they will ultimately lessen the consumption of corn, and diminish its price.

We have been frequently surprised to find the cultivation of the rhubarb plant neglected. In 1774, sir Alexander Dick presented to the society four pounds of rhubarb of British growth; and had in his possession a much larger quantity. The English roots sometimes weigh twenty-four pounds each; and though by drying they are considerably diminished, yet it is easy to supply the markets from our own plantations. Dr. Hope, the professor of botany at Edinburgh, has frequently used the British rhubarb; and he thinks it does not yield to the best Chinese. As a purgative and diuretic it is rather more active, but somewhat less powerful as an astringent. It is not generally known how large the sum is which we pay yearly to Russia on this account, independent of what is imported from our own settlements in India. In the year 1761 our unfavourable balance with Russia was about 500,000*l.* and of this sum above 20,000*l.* was paid for rhubarb only. In the latter years it has decreased, and the greatest annual importation during the years 1776 and 1777 was about 50,000 weight. The plant is, in this country, hardy and vigorous: it bears the cold of our severest winters, and from its form is a considerable ornament even in our flower-gardens. It is only necessary to add that, since the root is very succulent, it must be dried quickly, with a brisk current of air.

The premiums for the encouragement of the polite arts form a pleasing subject of speculation. We see the fostering hand of the society, and follow it in its progressive encouragements, till it has established the credit and the fortune of the artist. It is no disgrace to the most flourishing ornament of his profession, to owe its first shoots to these benevolent assistances. The fastidious philosopher may declaim against the growth of luxuries, and the misapplications of those bounties which might have encouraged more solid improvements. If these pursuits be not really useful, they are at least an innocent source of the most refined pleasure. They are, however, more interesting than at first appears; for the increase of taste gives a variety and a beauty to the patterns of our ornamental manufactures, which increases the demand of foreign nations. The printed linen manufacture of Scotland and Ireland, and the silks of Spitalfields, we know, have derived considerable advantages from such assistance.

Our limits will not permit us to expatiate on this subject; so that we must refer the reader to the work itself, for farther satisfaction.

*Emilius and Sophia, or the Solitaries. By J. J. Rousseau. Being a Sequel to Emilius. Also some Additions to Eloisa, by the same Author. 12mo. 25. 6d. Becket.*

THESE additions are in the spirit of Rousseau, and said to have been found among his papers after his decease. It would not be easy to detect a careful imitator of this visionary and inconsistent author, because, while there is nothing too elevated for his more sublime flights, there is nothing so absurd and contradictory that his conduct and writings will not in some measure countenance. In these sequels there is little excess on either side. They exhibit probably Rousseau cooled by age, and subdued by disappointment. We see the vestiges only of his former efforts; but we see also a consistency, which was sometimes obscured by his spirit, and sometimes broken by his reveries. On the whole, we have little doubt of the authenticity of the present continuation; and this will be a sufficient recommendation of it to the admirers of this visionary reformer. It was probably the design of the author to have given a practical application, in the language of the pulpit, of his system of education; but this very short attempt does not enable us to judge of its merits. Emilius and Sophia, united in their affections as well as by the laws of their country, remain in peaceful obscurity. The melancholy of the latter, on the death of one of their children, Emilius endeavours to remove by a journey to the capital. Its dissipations, for a time, seduce the solitary philosopher from his attentions to Sophia, and a false friend completes her ruin. The discovery is highly affecting, and its consequences may be easily imagined in a pupil of nature, who has never learned to disguise or oppose his feelings. He flies from Paris, and is hired by a carpenter; for his education had fitted him for every station. Sophia there discovers him, and he changes the scene. Fortune at last throws him on the coast of Africa: though unused to the sea, his general knowledge had enabled him to detect the designs of the captain, who endeavoured to convey them to the Moors; but the detection was too late—they were taken, and carried to Algiers. His acquired fortitude here assisted him: when he could no longer support the labours imposed on him, he refused to continue them, and intrepidly resisted all their torments. This resolution attracts the notice of his patron, who places him in the station of his tormentor.—Here the narrative ceases, yet it would have been pleasing to see him in this new light. We have given this short abridgement, to point out the force of the example, and shall refer the reader

for

for farther particulars, and for the apposite reflections, with which these letters abound, to the work itself.

The additions to Eloisa consist of some adventures of lord B. which could not be easily inserted in the work itself. They are indeed romantic, and even incredible; but Rousseau wrote from his feelings, seldom from his reason; and what the former dictated was not often brought to the judgment of the latter. As it was too romantic to be included in the history of Jelia, it is too improbable to induce us to abridge it. The translation is easy and elegant; we cannot judge of its fidelity, but, from the apparent abilities of the translator, have little reason to doubt it.

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*A General History of Music. By Charles Burney, Mus. D. F. R. S.*  
Vol. II. [Concluded, from Vol. liv. p. 414.]

WE are now come to the fifth chapter of this work, which treats 'of the State of Music, from the Invention of Printing till the Middle of the sixteenth Century; including its Cultivation in *Masses*, *Motets*, and *secular Songs* of this period:' and though the preceding part of the volume is curious and amusing to speculative and miscellaneous readers, this seems the most important to practical musicians. For

' We are now arriyed, says our authoir, at an æra when the principal materials for musical composition are prepared; when a regular and extensive scale for *Melody*, a code of general laws for *Harmony*, with a commodious *Notation* and *Time-table*, seem to furnish the Musician with the whole mechanism of his art; and if the productions of this period do not fulfil our present ideas of excellence, we must attribute their deficiencies neither to want of knowlege nor genius in their authors, but to the Gothic trammels in which music was still bound.

' The faculties of man are not only limited by nature, but by the horizon with which he is surrounded: if he lives in a polish'd state and enlightened times, his views will doubtless be extended; but it is allowed to no individual to penetrate much farther into the regions of science than his cotemporaries. Our Shakspere, Dryden, Bacon, Locke, and Newton, sublime as were their conceptions, and original their genius, found much already done, in their several departments, by their predecessors.

' Music being the object of a sense common to all mankind, if genius alone could invent and bring it to perfection, why is China, which has been so long civilized, still without great composers and performers? And why are the inhabitants of three-fourths of the globe still content, and even delighted with attempts at such music as Europeans would qualify with no better title than noise and jargon? It cannot be supposed that nature is entirely to blame, and that there is a phisical defect in the intellects

telects or organization of all the sons of men, except in Europe; and that a perfect ear, and the power of delighting it, are local. As the eye accommodates itself to all the gradations of light and obscurity, so does the ear to such gratifications as are within its reach; and the people accustomed to bad music enjoy it contentedly, without languishing for better. It is the curse of an ear long accustomed to excellence, to be fastidious and unwilling to be pleased; and unluckily for the honour of music and musicians, all the miraculous powers of the art cease the instant perfection becomes common. The most hyperbolical praises have been bestowed on music and musicians, when they seem not to have had the least claim to panegyric; but the best music of every age and nation is delightful to hearers, whose ideas of excellence are bounded by what they daily hear: and about the middle of the fifteenth century, though *melody* was governed by the ecclesiastical modes, though *harmony* was confined to a small number of common chords, and though measure was unmarked, yet at this period, by their union, practical musicians among the laity began to acquire great reputation.<sup>1</sup>

Dr. Burney complains very justly of the transient state of a practical musician's reputation.

From the decline of the Roman empire to the period under consideration, but few names of great musicians have come down to us, though there cannot be the least doubt but that every age and country in which arts and sciences have been cultivated, had their favourite and popular musician, who contributed more to the delight of his contemporaries than the rest of his brethren. But practical musicians and performers, however wonderful their powers, are unable, from the transient state of their art, to give permanence to their fame: age, infirmities, and new phenomena, soon complete its destruction. To the reputation of a Theorist, indeed, longevity is insured by means of books, which become obsolete sooner than musical compositions. Tradition only whispers, for a short time, the name and abilities of a mere performer, however exquisite the delight which his talents afforded to those who heard him; whereas a theory once committed to paper, and established, lives, at least in libraries, as long as the language in which it was written.

In Dr. Priestley's ingenious Biographical chart, it is remarkable that not one musician appears from the beginning of the Christian era till the eleventh century, where Guido is placed in a desert, which extends to the sixteenth century, and where Palestrina stands without a rival or neighbour; nor has all Europe furnished another musician, whom the author has thought worthy a niche in his chart, till the time of Lulli.<sup>2</sup>

Our author likewise complains, and with seeming reason, of the want of a complete musical library.

For though many individuals have been possessed of a rage for accumulating musical curiosities, it has seldom happened that they

they have extended their ideas to musical productions in general; so that no more than one class or species of composition has been completed by them, and even this, at the death of the proprietor, is usually dispersed.

'In a library, formed upon so large a scale as that of the king of France at Paris, the Bodleian, and Museum in England, it seems as if Music should be put on a level with other Arts and Sciences, in which every book of character is procured. In a royal or ample collection of pictures, specimens at least of every great painter are purchased, and no private library is thought complete while the writings of a single poet of eminence are wanting.'

And here (a) we have the sketch of an excellent plan for a musical library, which we hope will be adopted at the Museum, or at one of our universities. After this Dr. Burney gives an account of a very curious and valuable collection of masses preserved in the British Museum, in four parts; the first music, in counterpoint, that was published after the invention of printing. Then a *Time-table* for the perusal of the compositions of old authors, and intelligence of the *Moods*, *Ligatures*, and *Points* of different powers, which occur in their *figurative Harmony*. We have likewise the division of the musical scale into such parts as are appropriated to voices of different compass; as *Base*, *Tenor*, *Counter-tenor*, and *Treble*; with the harmonies used by early contrapuntists to every note of the scale; or, as it has since been called by the French, *la Règle de l'Octave*. Then we have the origin of *discord*, *binding* and *passing-notes*, with a recapitulation of all the rules of composition, then in use. Throughout this part of the work, the author, by the clear and instructive manner in which these scientific matters are treated, discovers great musical erudition, and a consummate knowledge in the *arcana* of his art. But in no didactic part of his book is he more satisfactory, to our comprehension, than in speaking of the origin and rules of canon and fugue, which so much abounded in the compositions of the most ancient contrapuntists whose works have been preserved.

The author has a very ingenious and fanciful period on the partiality which these musical patriarchs had for *Harmony* and *Contrivance*, at the expence of *Melody*.

'It was natural to imagine that *Melody* and *Harmony*, like twin-sisters, would have grown up, and been refined and polished together. But the elder of the two sisters, *Melody*, was long neglected, and suffered to run wild, while every method was used, which science and diligence could devise, in order to cultivate and improve the natural powers and agreeable qualities

(a) See Note (m) p. 445.

ties of *Harmony*. It was indeed a long time, before sufficient attention had been given to *Melody*, to find that she was capable of the least improvement, or had a genius for any thing but *Psalmsody*; however, in riper years, she was discovered to have many captivating qualities, and to be susceptible of grace, elegance, and every embellishment which art and invention could suggest. This discovery, in process of time, brought her into good company, and made her the delight of the most polished and fashionable part of the world, after having long associated with the lowest of the people, rioting in alehouses with jolly fellows, and roaring in the streets with ballad-singers. At length, however, she went upon the stage, and there, though indeed she was accused of giving herself airs, and affecting the company of princes and heroes, and manners of the ancient Greeks, yet, of whatever absurdities she was guilty in her theatrical character, she seems from that to have derived all her favour and importance; as it was on the *Stage* that she studied the public opinion, and acquired the approbation of persons of sensibility, taste, and discernment.

His account of the first composers of music in parts, and their works, of which he gives specimens, is entertaining and curious. At the head of these, is John Okenheim, a Netherlander, of the fifteenth century, who seems to have been a giant in subduing Gothic difficulties of his own creation. Dr. Burney does not seem to over-rate the fragments he exhibits of this composer's abilities, when he says that

‘ They are given rather as specimens of a determined spirit of patient perseverance, than as models of imitation. In Music, different from all other arts, learning and labour seem to have preceded taste and invention, from both which the times under consideration are still very remote. But as the chants of the church were the ground-work of all composition at this period, the ears of the congregation seem to have been less consulted than the eye of the performer, who was to solve canonical mysteries, and discover latent beauties of ingenuity and contrivance, about which the hearers were indifferent, provided the general harmony was pleasing. However, the performer's attention was kept on the stretch, and perhaps he gained in mental amusement what was wanting in sensual.’

Page 481 we have a dirge, in five parts, on the death of this venerable musician, by his scholar, the admirable Josquin des Prez, who seems to stand the highest in Dr. Burney's favour of all the old masters of whom he has yet had occasion to speak.

In our author's former descriptions of modern productions and performances, and their effects on his own feelings, while he was in Italy and Germany (a), we found a degree of dis-

(a) See his *Present State of Music in those Countries*.

crimination, as well as taste, and enthusiasm for modern refinements, which somewhat inclipt us to fear for the *old music*; and that the grave and elaborate compositions with which our forefathers were so much delighted, and which are still preserved in the church, and admired by many respectable judges out of it, would not be treated with due reverence. But, on the contrary, we find that the author's regard for musical merit is *general*; and that *Fugues*, *Canons*, and other elaborate combinations of sound, in pure and sober harmony, though more the offspring of study and meditation than effusions of genius, are so far from being contemned or slighted by our musical historian, that he points out all their beauties of contrivance and learning, with a zeal and ardor that evince him to be well acquainted with the difficulties which their authors had to encounter in constructing them.

After the insertion of many admirable compositions by his great musical hero, *Josquin*, and giving several curious anecdotes concerning his life, he makes the following liberal apology for his style, with which, we imagine, the lovers and patrons of ancient music will be very much pleased.

‘ This species of laboured composition has been frequently censured, and stigmatized by the name of pedantry, and Gothic barbarism, which, perhaps, it would now deserve, out of the church; but in the time of Josquin, when there was little melody, and no grace in the arrangement, or measure of *single notes*; the science of harmony, or ingenuity of contrivance in the combination of simultaneous Sounds, or Music in parts, as it was the chief employment of the Student, and ambition of the Composer, so the merit of both, and the degree of regard bestowed upon them by posterity, should be proportioned to their success, in what was their chief object, and not in what had no existence at the time in which these musicians lived. Another apology offers itself for Josquin, as well as for his scholars, and followers, who composed for the Church: which is, that pure harmony, and contrivances, are less favourable to that kind of levity which is inseparable from *Airs* clothed with little harmony, which seem unfit for the gravity of Ecclesiastical purposes.

‘ With respect to some of Josquin's contrivances, such as Augmentations, Diminutions, and Inversions of the Melody, expressed by the barbarous Latin verb *Cancrizare*, from the retrograde motion of the *crab*, they were certainly pursued to an excess; but to subdue difficulties, has ever been esteemed a merit of a certain kind, in all the arts, and treated with respect by artists. Michael Angelo, in delineating the difficult attitudes into which he chose to throw many figures in his works, and which other artists had not courage, or, perhaps, abilities to attempt, procured himself a great name among the judges of correct drawing, and bold design; though a great part of the spec-

tator's pleasure in viewing them, must arise from reflecting on the difficulty of the undertaking. There are different roads to the temple of Fame in every art ; and that which was followed by Josquin, and his emulators, was too full of thorns, brambles, and impediments, to be pursued by men of common diligence and abilities. Painting and sculpture, which are to delight and deceive the eye, do not, any more than Music, confine their powers to the mere endeavour at pleasing the sense, of which they are the object ; and there are Pictures, Statues, and Musical compositions, which afford very little pleasure to the eye or ear, but what is intellectual, and arises from reflecting on their learning, correctness, and the great labour which the artist must have bestowed on them.

\* Canons of difficult solution, were, to Musicians, a species of problem, and served more to exercise the mind than please the sense ; and, though a peculiar genius, or penetration, is requisite for the quick discovery of riddles and rebusses, yet, still more cunning is necessary to their production ; and, however contemptuously these harmonical contrivances may be treated by the lazy lovers of more airy and simple compositions, the study of them is still of such use to Musical students, in their private exercises, that a profound and good Contrapuntist has, perhaps, never yet been made by other means. Those who despise this seeming Gothic pedantry too much, resemble such half-bred scholars, as have expected to arrive at a consummate knowledge of the Roman Classics, without submitting to the drudgery of Grammar and Syntax. Indeed a great Composer has, perhaps, never existed since the invention of Counterpoint, who, at his moments of leisure, has not attempted to manifest superior learning and skill, in the production of Canons, and other difficult arrangements and combinations of sound ; and who, if he succeeded, was not vain of his abilities. Before the cultivation of Dramatic Music, as Canon and Fugue were universally studied and reverenced, they were brought to such a degree of perfection, as is wonderful ; and though good taste has long banished them from the Theatre, yet the Church and Chamber still, occasionally, retain them, with great propriety ; in the Church they preclude levity, and in the Chamber exercise ingenuity.

\* As Euclid ranks first among ancient geometricians, so Josquin, for the number, difficulty, and excellence of his Musical Canons, seems entitled to the first place among the old Composers, who have been most assiduous and successful in the cultivation of this difficult species of Musical calculation.

\* But though the style of Josquin, even in his secular Compositions, is grave, and chiefly in Fugue, Imitation, and other contrivances, with little Air or Melody ; yet this defect is amply supplied to Contrapuntists, and lovers of Choral Music, by purity of harmony, and ingenuity of design. Indeed, I have never seen, among all his productions that I have scored, a single movement which is not stamped with some mark of the great

master. And though Fugue and Canon were so universally cultivated in his time, when there were many men of abilities in this elaborate and complicated kind of writing; there is such a manifest superiority in his powers, such a simple majesty in his ideas, and such dignity of design, as wholly justify the homage he received.'

When our author has taken his leave of Josquin, which he does with seeming reluctance, he proceeds to discuss the merits of other composers on the continent, his contemporaries, from whose productions he likewise gives curious extracts, which we believe have never appeared before in print, at least in score. The chief of these are *Benedict, Henry Isaac, Pierre de la Rue, Anthony Brumel, Ant. Feum or Fevin, and John Mouton*. In speaking of a mass by *Jacob Hobrecht*, a Netherlander, and Music-master to Erasmus, our author makes a shrewd kind of remark.

' In scoring this composition, says he, it appears, though the movements are somewhat too similar in subject, that the Counterpoint is clean, clear, and masterly. And this is the chief praise that is justly due to most of the compositions of the same period; which, in other respects, so much resemble each other, that the specimens already given exhibit almost all the variety of melody and measure which the productions of a whole century can furnish. Indeed, as air and grace were not at this time the objects of a Composer's pursuits, they should not be sought or expected. Those, however, who have heard modern Melody, Harmony, and Modulation, to a degree of satiety, and admire the Fugues, Canons, and other ingenious contrivances of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, would have great pleasure in the performance or contemplation of such Music as this, which is become new by excess of antiquity. Few or none of the passages have been retained in Modern Music; and the harmony and modulation having been regulated by the ecclesiastical tones, or modes, which have been so long exploded in this country, every thing would be as new to a *Dilettante* of the present age, as if he only now heard Music for the first time; so that, those who can tolerate nothing but what is *ancient*, and those, who are in constant search of *something new*, will, in these authors, find Music equally adapted to their several tastes, and be likewise furnished with an excuse for their fastidiousness.'

Another of the same kind is that upon a composer of these times, who was so fond of unlimited *Pauses*, that he often prescribed four together; and once, in a *Credo*, (as if it was difficult to digest) he has eight, successively; upon which Dr. Burney says,

' As every thing has been tried in Music, at all times, that was likely to please, surprise, or impress the public with the idea of an author's superior genius, taste, or science; so there

has been at every period, some fashionable folly, extravagance, or affectation, among Musicians: for whenever a happy novelty has been started, by a man gifted with real genius, immediately another, with none, has given it to the public in a larger dose, with as little discretion as a cook, who, hearing that an ounce of some particular ingredient had rendered a new invented dish extremely palatable, should think it would be still more exquisite, if he doubled the quantity.'

The rest of this volume (from p. 539 to 597.) is appropriated to the consideration of *English Music*; and from the production of our countrymen niches are given to many specimens of their genius and abilities. Among these we have *English Songs* in parts, of the fifteenth and beginning of the sixteenth century, by *William Newark, Sherrington, Edmund Turges, and Robert Fairfax*. 'The music of these ditties, (says Dr. Burney,) is somewhat uncouth, but it is still better than the poetry.—But (he afterwards observes), however inelegant, rude, and imperfect, our lyric compositions may have been, till the middle of the sixteenth century, our counterpoint and church music arrived at a perfection, with respect to art, contrivance, and correctness of harmony, about that time, which at least equalled the best of any other country.'

He then gives examples of our *Choral Music*, before the Reformation, from masses and services to Latin words, composed in the time of Henry VII. and his successor. Among these we have two movements by *John Taverner*; three by *Dr. Fairfax*; a motet for five voices by *John Shepherd*; a movement from a mass by *Dr. Tye*, in six parts; a motet by *Robert Johnson*; and an English song, in five parts, by *Robert Parsons*. Of all these composers Dr. Burney seems to think the style of *Dr. Tye* more clear, correct, and accented, than the rest.

After these specimens of church music, we have an account of the use and progress of secular music, in the houses of our nobility, and at the courts of most of the princes of Europe. Then the author gives an account of the first attempts at setting the English Litany to a chant, by archbishop Cranmer, at the beginning of the Reformation, 1545; and of the whole *Booke of Common Praier noted*, for the use of cathedrals, by *John Marbeck*, organist of Windsor, when that important work was completed, in 1550.

The author then concludes the present volume with the following reflections.

• It would be easy to shew, that Ecclesiastical Music, in the middle ages, was all derived from the Papal Chapel, and Court of Rome; that Counterpoint was first cultivated for their use; that it travelled thence to the Hanseatic towns, and the Netherlands,

lands, where the affluence, which flowed from successful commerce, afforded encouragement and leisure for its cultivation; till about the middle of the sixteenth century, when, by the general intercourse which traffic and the new art of printing introduced, all the improvements in harmony, which had been made in Italy and the Low Countries, were communicated to every other part of Europe; which not only stimulated the natives to adopt and imitate them, but to improve and render them more perfect, by their own inventions and refinements.'

After this period, indeed, Dr. Burney has thought it necessary to apologize to his subscribers, in a kind of advertisement, for extending his work beyond the limits of *two volumes*, which he at first thought would be sufficient for the completion of his plan. For our own parts, after a most attentive perusal, we are of opinion, from the manner of his treating the subject, and the materials and resources of which he seems possessed, that whoever has read the volumes already published would be more sorry than the author himself, if he were to leave unaccomplished, an enterprize for which such pains and expence have been bestowed in procuring materials.'

Upon the whole, we may venture to say, that taste and candour seem the principal characteristics of this volume; however, when the author comes to speak of the old French opera, and the French expression in singing the *airs tendres* of Lulli and Rameau, not only his candour but his patience (which sometimes failed him formerly at Paris) will be put to the test. Thus far he has been in search of infant song, and music of every kind during the first years of its existence after regeneration. Here partiality could not well operate, as he could meet with nothing to excite it. The *canto fermo* of the primitive church, though venerable for its antiquity, and still vibrating in the ears of Roman catholics, is neither seen nor heard with partial eyes or ears by protestants. Fugues, canons, &c. have so little to do with taste or expression, and are so much alike in all countries, that no national cast or affection can well have place in them: for as our author has truly observed, ' before the Reformation, as there was but *one* religion, there was but *one* kind of music in Europe, which was Plain Chant, and the Discant built upon that foundation; and as this music was likewise *only* applied to *one* language, the Latin, it accounts for the compositions of Italy, France, Spain, Germany, Flanders, and England, keeping pace with each other, in style and excellence.'

With respect to the sequel of the work, as the author has contrived to make the dark and rugged paths through Gothic times so easy and pleasant, by the light he afforded us on the

way, we have no doubt but that, with his diligence, taste, and selection, he will render the rest of the road through remaining times still more delightful, not only by his materials, but reflections on many parts of his art, which have been cultivated since the period with which he closes the present volume; particularly the *Musical Drama*, and improvements in the composition and performance of *Music for Instruments*; subjects which his knowledge and experience so well enable him to discuss, and not only render pleasant, but instructive to his musical readers, by regulating and correcting the public taste in music, as sir Joshua Reynolds has done in a sister art. We therefore earnestly recommend to his consideration and discussion the beauties and defects of style in *composition*; the precision, inaccuracy, and intemperance of *execution*; and above all, the force of *accent* and *expression*, without which, though the harmony of sweet sounds may delight the ear, the heart can have no share in the feast.

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*An History of the Corruptions of Christianity.* 2 Vols. By Joseph Priestley, LL. D. F. R. S. Price 12s. in Boards, Johnson.

THOUGH the precepts and doctrines of Christianity, as they are delivered by the sacred writers, are plain and rational, yet, in all ages of the church, many of them have been unhappily misunderstood, or wilfully misrepresented, by ignorant or designing men.

In the primitive times, some of those, who had been originally Jews or Pagans, brought with them, when they came into the Christian church, the favourite notions and peculiar dogmas of the schools, in which they had been educated; and either imagined they found them in the New Testament, or else endeavoured to unite and incorporate them with the doctrines of the Gospel.

Others were so strongly attached to their new religion, that they weakly maintained a number of chimerical notions, legendary tales, and pious frauds, under a persuasion, that they were by these means promoting the honour and interest of Christianity.

In the first and second centuries, which some writers have thought proper to call the Golden Age of the church, a multitude of wild and fantastical heretics began to propagate their religious reveries. These were the fanatics of those days, who, under the banners of Christianity, waged an unnatural war against reason and common sense. The race of these visionaries infested the church in every succeeding period, and is

not

not yet extinct. But Christianity in general was not essentially injured by their absurdities.

In the darker ages, when the arts and sciences were almost abolished, a torrent of corruption overflowed the church, and Christianity, as it is natural to imagine, was a principal sufferer in the general devastation. Then it was, that interest and superstition, pride and policy, began to introduce the boldest innovations, and to change the pure and simple doctrines of revelation, into a dark and intricate system, composed of scholastic terms, unintelligible distinctions, and inexplicable articles of faith, which were enjoined, established, and sanctified under the venerable name of *mysteries*.

When literature began to revive, and the scriptures were translated into the living languages of Europe, the corruptions of the church were seen and lamented. A reformation was projected, and many gross and enormous errors were exploded. But the reformers were only just emerging out of the profoundest darkness. Few rational commentaries on the scriptures had been published. The most learned men were but moderately versed in sacred criticism; and their minds were harrassed and perplexed by the metaphysical subtleties and inflexible zeal of contending parties. It is not therefore to be imagined, that they carried the reformation to that degree of perfection, which they might have done in a more auspicious era. However this may be, all improvements are progressive. The present age sees many things in a clearer light than any former one. The art of printing has put us in possession of innumerable advantages in our theological studies, which the reformers wanted. We are assisted by the labours of all our predecessors. We can pursue our enquiries with ease and freedom; and can safely reject every doctrine, which, upon an accurate examination, appears to have no foundation in scripture.

A wise and prudent enquirer after truth, will however proceed with caution; will examine the documents of antiquity with modesty and moderation; and explode no religious tenets, but such as are found, upon the fullest and clearest evidence of reason and revelation, to be strictly and properly corruptions of Christianity.

The learned author of the work, which is the object of our present consideration, is one of those free and independent writers, who are not restrained by any creeds or subscriptions, who pay no submission to the decisions of the church, and can explode the credenda of their forefathers, without ceremony. This, we must confess, is a desirable freedom. But whenever it is indulged in its full extent, the reader, who has not at-

tained to such a *liberality* of sentiment, will be apt to exclaim in the language of the poet \*, *QUAM REM AGIS, SCELUS!* In other words, you are demolishing the fundamentals of Christianity !

The first article in this work is, the history of the opinions relating to Jesus Christ and the Holy Spirit. The author observes, that the unity of God is a doctrine, on which the greatest stress is laid in the whole system of revelation ; and that the first step that was made towards the deification of Christ, was by the personification of the *Logos* ; that the supremacy was always ascribed to the Father before the council of Nice, which was held in 325 ; that this council gave the Son the same nature with the Father ; that the second [at Constantinople in 381] admitted the Holy Spirit into the Trinity ; that the third [at Ephesus in 431] assigned to Christ a human soul in conjunction with the eternal *Logos* ; that the fourth [at Chalcedon in 451] settled the hypostatical union of the divine and human nature of Christ ; and the fifth [at Constantinople in 553] affirmed, that, in consequence of this union, the two natures constituted only one person.'

Having traced the Trinitarian scheme through all its variations, he tells us, ' that the doctrine of the simple humanity of Christ seems now to be the prevailing opinion among those, who have distinguished themselves, by their freedom of thinking, in matters of religion.'

The subject of the second part, is the history of opinions relating to the doctrine of atonement.

The doctrine of the natural placability of the divine Being, and our ideas of the equity of his government, have, says the author, been greatly debased by the gradual introduction of the modern doctrine of atonement, which represents the Deity as withholding his mercy from the truly penitent, till a full satisfaction be made to his justice ; and for that purpose, as substituting his own innocent Son in the place of sinful men.

The third part contains the history of opinions concerning grace, original sin, and predestination. These are usually called Calvinistic doctrines ; and have been effectually refuted by many excellent writers, particularly Taylor, in his treatise on original sin, Sykes on redemption, and Edwards on grace. What our author has advanced on these points, is confined to a smaller compass, but is rational and satisfactory.

In the fourth part he proceeds to the doctrines, in which the Papists are more particularly concerned ; namely, those which relate to the worship of Saints and Angels, of the Virgin Mary, and of images.

On the adoration of the saints the author has these remarks :

‘ Considering who they were that directed this business of canonization, and what kind of merit weighed most with them, it is no wonder that many of these canonized persons were such as had little title to the appellation of saints. They were generally miserable enthusiasts, some of them martyrs to their own austeries, and sometimes men who had distinguished themselves by nothing but their zeal for what was imagined to be the *rights of the church*, and their opposition to the temporary princes of their times ; such as Thomas à Becket of this country.

‘ As many of the persons to whom divine honours are paid in catholic countries, began to be distinguished in this manner before there were any regular canonizations, and in times of great ignorance, we are not surprised, though we cannot help being amused, at the gross mistakes that were sometimes made in this serious business ; several of the names, the most distinguished by the honours that are paid to them, being those of persons altogether *imaginary*, so that the object of their worship never had any existence. Such is St. *Ursula*, and the eleven thousand virgins. This woman is said to have been a native of Cornwall, who, with her virgins, travelled to Rome, and in their return through Germany, accompanied by pope Cyriacus, suffered martyrdom at Cologn. Baronius himself says there never was any pope of that name.

‘ In this class also we must put the *seven sleepers*, who are said to have slept in a cave from the time of Decius to that of Theodosius, or as they reckon it 162 years ; and who, to the confutation of some who denied the resurrection, awakened after that interval, and looked as fresh as ever. No better claim has St. *George* the patron of this country, or St. *Christopher*, who is said to have been twelve feet, or twelve cubits high, and to have carried our Saviour over an arm of the sea upon his back. From the words *Vera Icon*, or the *true image*, meaning that of our Saviour, impressed upon a handkerchief, they have made saint *Veronica*, and supposed this handkerchief to have been given to her by our Saviour himself.

‘ Several mistakes have been made by supposing that words beginning with an S, were intended to express the name of some saint, and from the remainder of the word they have accordingly composed the name of an imaginary person. Thus, in all probability, from *Soracte*, the name of a mountain, they have got the name of St. *Oreste*, softening the sound after the Italian manner ; and, what is more extraordinary, from a fragment of an inscription, which, in all probability was originally *praefectus viarum*, the S only remaining of the word *praefectus*, and *viar* of the word following, they have made St. *Viar* ; and the Spaniards, in whose country this inscription was found, fancying that this new saint had distinguished himself by many illustrious miracles, solicited pope Urban to do something to his honour. In England

particular

particular honour was paid to *St. Amphibolus*, which appears to have been nothing but a *cleric* that had belonged to *St. Alban*.

\* Besides particular festivals for particular saints, the papists have a festival for the commemoration of *all saints* in general, lest, as we may suppose, any should have been omitted in their calendar. This was introduced by *Gregory the Fourth*.

\* The new objects of worship presently engrossed almost all the devotion of the vulgar, who think they may make more free with these inferior divinities than they can with the supreme Being: so that the name of the true God, the Father, is seldom made use of by them. And those persons who have attached themselves to any particular saint have become most passionately fond of them, and have been led to magnify their power to a degree which excites both our pity and indignation. There is a book entitled *the Conformity of St. Francis*, intended to shew how nearly he approached to Christ, in his birth, miracles, and all the particulars of his life. But nothing was ever so extraordinary as the accounts of *Ignatius*, by his followers the *Jesuits*; and it is the more so, as he lived in modern times.

\* Some of the *Jesuits* have said, it was no wonder that *Moses* worked so many miracles, since he had the name of God written upon his rod; or that the *apostles* worked miracles, since they spake in the name of Christ: whereas *St. Ignatius* had performed as many miracles as the *apostles*, and more than *Moses*, in his own name. Others of them have said that only Christ, the *apostle Peter*, the blessed *Virgin*, and *God*, could even contemplate the sanctity of *St. Ignatius*. They also applied to him this passage of scripture, *God has in these last times spoken unto us by his Son.*

The subject of the fifth part is the History of Opinions concerning the state of the dead.

The state of death, which our author supposes to be the genuine doctrine of scripture, is that of absolute insensibility, as opposed to life.

It is well known, that the lucrative doctrine of purgatory is founded on that of an intermediate state. But the foregoing opinion has gained ground very much, since the writings of the present excellent bishop of *Carlisle*, and the acute and learned archdeacon of *Cleveland*, on the subject.

[To be concluded in our next.]

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*The History of France, from the Commencement of the Reign of Lewis XIII. to the general Peace of Munster. By Walter Anderson. Vol. IV. and V. 4to. 15s. in Boards. Becket.*

THE first two volumes of this work were published in the year 1769, and contained the history of France during the reigns of *Francis the Second* and *Charles the Ninth*, with a prefixed

a prefixed review of the general history of that monarchy, from its origin to that period. In 1775 was published a third volume, deducing the narrative from the commencement of the reign of Henry the Third, and the rise of the catholic league, to the peace of Vervins, and the establishment of the edict of Nantes, in the reign of Henry the Fourth. In the course of our review, we remarked that Dr. Anderson had swelled his work unnecessarily with contemporary transactions in other countries, which had little or no connexion with those of France; and that, through the whole, he had too implicitly adopted French authorities, though, on many occasions, those of other writers were entitled to far greater credit, both in point of information and impartiality\*.

We wish we could pronounce of the two volumes now before us, that the author had rendered them less liable to objection in those particulars; but we are sorry to find him still rambling on needless excursions, and still performing them slavishly in the trammels of French authorities. Dr. Anderson has also not justly proportioned his attention to the dignity and importance of characters; a blemish which may be observed in several parts of the History.

The former of the present volumes commences with the intrigues of the queen-mother, Mary de Medicis, for obtaining the regency, during the minority of her son, Lewis the Thirteenth, the beginning of whose reign was stained with acts of violence, not unusual in the nations of Europe in those times. Such, in general, is the nature of the principal incidents which occur in this history, that they tend not so much to afford entertainment as to strike the reader with horror. The murder of a factious statesman, or an obnoxious minister, so frequently happened in barbarous ages, that it may be considered as a common event; but to bring to the scaffold a woman, for the odium incurred by her husband, is a severity, of which we meet with but few instances. This was, however, the fate of Galigai, the unfortunate wife of Conchini, the marshal d' Ancre. We shall lay before our readers a part of the narrative of these transactions.

' The atrocity of this action, perpetrated in the court of the Louvre, was such, that it could not be imputed to the young king, without impeaching him with a degree of inhumanity and cruelty unnatural to his years. Hitherto kept back from the agitation of political affairs, and discovering no impetuosity of temper, or inclination to engage in the offices of sovereignty, he had allowed his mother, in effect, to retain all the former authority

\* See Crit. Rev. vol. xxvii. and xxxix.

of her regency, and seemed to be entirely satisfied with pursuing some favourite sports, and juvenile diversions. A prince, who pretended not to interfere in the business of the state, and who, from his little intercourse with the ministers, could conceive no particular antipathies to any of them, was not likely to form the outrageous purpose of destroying Conchini. It was soon discovered, indeed, that every notion he had formed of the demerit of this favourite, as well as the resolution he took to arrest him as a criminal, was communicated to him by the artifices of de Luines ; who, from being the master of his falconry, and the companion of his pastimes, became his chief confident, and the director of all his purposes. The memoirs of this period, and some histories, which transcribe them, give a prolix and a tedious narrative of the sinister methods used by de Luines, to excite Lewis to the destruction of this odious foreigner. From these details, the gross ignorance in which this prince was held by his tutor, and the fears and jealousies raised in him, about the designs of his mother, to continue her authority, are sufficiently apparent. Every advantage being taken of Lewis's inexperience, by fictitious representations of Conchini, as affecting the power of the ancient maîtres of the palace, and by insinuations against Mary of Medicis, as favouring his views ; de Luines, at length, succeeded in prompting the young monarch to assert his prerogative, and to order the favourite to be arrested.

The execution of this secret scheme disgraced its author still more than the contrivance. Le Luines, acting altogether from selfish motives, in the conspiracy against Conchini, showed that he could, without scruple, employ both the cunning and the barbarity of an assassin, to accomplish his purpose. Having persuaded the king, contrary to all probability, that the marshal would make resistance, though arrested in the palace, and obtained an order, in that case, to use violence against him, he easily contrived matters so as to put him to death. The unsuspecting victim came, accompanied, as usual, with his domestic train, to pay his respects to the king and queen in the Louvre. After passing through the great gate, and entering the court yard, where there was a draw bridge, he was accosted by the captain of the guards, who said, "I arrest you in the king's name." The surprise made him recoil, while Vitri endeavoured to lay hold of his right arm. This circumstance was construed an effort to defend himself. Immediately, upon a sign given, three pistols were discharged, which lodged, each of them, a bullet in his body. He fell, half prostrate, on the parapet of the bridge ; and, after all marks of life were gone, he was mangled with several strokes of the sword. Unhappy in that favour and fortune which he had acquired, without any title from his birth or abilities, he became the object of general hatred in France, to a degree much beyond the just grounds of offence or complaint he had given, either to the public or to particular persons. Undergoing the hard fate that often attends royal favourites, every public grievance

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was ascribed to him, and every courtier's disappointment was imputed to his secret influence. The tide of public calumny being turned against him, the delinquencies of other ministers and counsellors of the queen-regent were overlooked ; and even the open revolts and insurrections of the nobles were considered as slight trespasses, compared to the guilt of Conchini. It was not till some time after his assassination that men allowed themselves to judge with coolness, with respect to his character as a man or a courtier. —

‘ Upon a consultation with the counsellors of parliament, it was determined, that a process should be formed against the memory of the marshal d'Ancre, and include the impeachment of his wife for high treason ; a vain subterfuge to cover the shameful act of assassination. But de Luines, who had the forfeiture of the real and personal estates of both in view, insisted upon this measure. Then were the oracles of justice seen to relinquish its first principles, or to prostitute them to the pleasure of the new minister. “ With respect to the execution done on the marshal,” said they, “ it is enough that the king avows his order for it : that alone compensates all want of the forms of justice.” There is nothing more required to establish despotism, but to adopt this maxim, in all its extent. As in Conchini's case, the necessity of recurring to it, however false, may always be pretended, and every occasion taken to supersede the office of the magistrate. Wherever it has prevailed in courts, it has fostered barbarism, and rendered private revenge, and secret massacre, excusable and common among all orders of men. While the magistrates, subverting the obligations of law, pronounced Conchini legally put to death, without a trial, we need not admire that the Parisian mob took the liberty to enter the church of St. Germain de l'Auxerrois, where his body was hid in the ground-floor, and to drag it from this sanctuary. No savages could surpass them, in expressions of inhumanity and brutal rage, which ceased not until every limb being torn in pieces, no fragment was left to be laid in the earth.

‘ The procedure of law, when made subservient to arbitrary or barbarous maxims of policy, becomes doubly detestable. Galigai's process exemplified the superstition and cruelty of the times, supported by a regular tribunal. Her indictment was for treason, divine and human ; for caballing against the king's authority ; for holding secret intelligence with strangers, and embezzling the public treasure. The crimes alledged against her husband might, by the equivocal form of the libel, be charged upon her. She was accused of sorcery, and consulting with a Jewish magician. Her composure and constancy, at her trial, were astonishing. Heartfelt grief, and the chilling power of despair, had dried up her tears. She smiled, however, when interrogated by her solemn judges, upon the article of her enchantments ; and, when asked if some Agnus Dei, sent from Italy to her, were not talismans and implements of her diabolical art, her cool and

and apt replies struck many in the crowded audience, who beheld a woman, and a stranger, under deplorable calamity, defend herself with vivacity and the force of plain reason, against a learned tribunal, evidently bent on finding her guilty. A few only of the counsellors considered how the name of the parliament of Paris, and the reputation of the nation itself, would suffer by pronouncing a capital sentence against her, founded neither in reason, equity, or justice. Five of them declared against the iniquitous process, and the advocate-general was heard to own, that the depositions against her were frivolous and shameful. She fell a victim, not to the credulity of her judges about her witchcraft, but to the solicitations used with them. On the day of her execution, the hatred of the Parisians was changed into pity, when they saw her prepared to receive the stroke of the beheading sword with resolution. De Luines accomplished his double aim, by gathering her spoils and those of her husband, and convincing the pupil king, that the most intimate confidant of Mary of Medicis was an execrable magician.

The most conspicuous object of the History is cardinal Richlieu, who directed the affairs of Lewis during the greater part of this period. We cannot but wish that our author had traced more minutely the springs by which the engine of government was actuated in the cardinal's administration; as such a detail might throw considerable light on several silent, but important operations. Dr. Anderson, however, has faithfully delineated the outlines of the conduct and character of this minister.

The account, says our author, given by the historians of Richlieu's preparation for death, may be passed over with observing, that he went through all the ceremonials prescribed by the Catholic church, with devout alacrity. His lively spirit forsook him not to the last moment. He made the responses to his confessor, about the soundness of his faith, his penitence, his zeal for the Catholic church, and his forgiveness to his enemies, with a firm tone, and ready accents. It was his felicity in the hour of death, as well as in his life, to discover fortitude, and no weakness. The news of his decease, when spread through Paris, at first struck the people in a different manner from what had been expected. Execrations of his name, so usual among them, were repressed, and hatred yielded to surprise, and temporary admiration. His fall seemed like that of some column in a building, which, though offensive to the eye from its enormous size and towering height, had formed an advantageous support to the whole, and whose ruin is surveyed with astonishment and awe. Croud flocked to behold his dead body, and were with difficulty drawn off from gazing upon it. Various eulogiums were composed upon his character and abilities. But a display of opposite sentiments soon followed these transient emotions. Pointed satires were prepared for inscriptions on his tomb; and, while his relations and creatures mourned the loss of their powerful patron,

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the generality of the courtiers and nobles showed that satisfaction at his exit, which arises in the mind when relieved from impressions of terror and continual apprehension.

‘In Richelieu’s character, not only single and extraordinary qualities, but traits rarely existing together, were combined. Its great features were marked with a bold elevation, which showed that his passions rose almost in equal vigour with his intellectual powers. Fitted for penetration into every science, his genius displayed itself with superior lustre in the affairs of state. He was more the discerning and active politician, than the cool and contemplative statesman, and more qualified to rule than to erect a system of government. The scheme of political and military action he proposed, was suited to his daring genius; and he could not have succeeded in it, without being at once animated and enterprising, considerate and profound. He prosecuted it under difficulties, perhaps insurmountable to any other minister. He persisted in the war with the house of Austria, while a formidable party at the court of France exclaimed against it, and her allies abroad fluctuated in their resolutions, and Lewis XIII. himself was often stumbled. Proceeding on this precarious ground, he acted like one under constant jealousy and dread of a dangerous attack. From several moral and civil obligations, to which he was not insensible, he thought himself absolved by reasons of state, or regard to his own preservation. In the capacity of minister, he acted the absolute sovereign, while he degraded the personal Majesty of the Prince. Carrying his private animosities into the province of his administration, he showed himself both artificial and violent, insidious and vindictive against his enemies. He coloured this resentment, and palliated it to himself, by a dexterity in proving them always adversaries to the state. Though more sanguine than phlegmatic in his temper, he persevered in his purposes. His expedients to surmount difficulties could hardly be exhausted: yet he endured not adversity with patience or temper, and discovered an inequality of spirit even upon the prospect of it. In escaping it, with all his sagacity and foresight, he may be accounted fortunate. He was capable of sincere and warm friendship; but apt to exact such returns as were inconsistent with its generous principles. He appears to have trusted to the splendor of his actions, rather than to the probity of them, for that fame with posterity to which he aspired.’

Lewis XIII. not long surviving his minister, the crown, as before, devolved on an infant prince; under whom rose the famous Mazarin, who completed the plan of despotism which had been begun by his predecessor. The narrative concludes with Lewis XIV. assuming the reins of government into his own hands; and Dr. Anderson, therefore, will probably resign the subsequent period of the French history to the celebrated biographer of that monarch. The author has subjoined some

general

general observations, relative to the state of manners, the progress of civilization, and the culture of science, and taste in the fine arts, during the forty years which are the subject of these volumes.

Dr. Anderson's work comprises neither the more early, nor the later period of the French history; but so far as he pursues the narrative, he gives a clear account of transactions, according to the authorities which he has chosen to adopt. His style, in general, is that of mediocrity.

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*A New Translation of the Gospel of St. Matthew, with Notes, Critical, Philological and Explanatory. By Gilbert Wakefield, B. A. late Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, and now Classical Tutor at Warrington. 4to. 12s. in Boards. Johnson.*

**N**otwithstanding there are innumerable commentators on the New Testament already extant, and every passage in it seems to have been so minutely and repeatedly examined, that scarcely any thing remains for farther investigation, yet new publications on this subject are continually succeeding one another. And this will most probably be the case in all future ages, till, in the hyperbolical expression of the evangelist, 'even the world itself cannot contain the books that shall be written.'

The present age is favourable to free enquiry; and men of learning openly discuss every article in theology, without reserve. This can never be injurious to Christianity; for it has been long observed, that even the writings of unbelievers have ultimately contributed to the honour of divine revelation. Let the most liberal and impartial criticism be encouraged, and truth will infallibly be discovered. Our religion has nothing to apprehend. Posterity will either applaud or condemn the disquisitions of learned men, according to their respective merits.

The author of this work has not confined himself to any established system; but has freely controverted several points of popular belief, which most of his predecessors have treated with greater deference. On this account, some parts of his commentary will probably give offence to orthodox believers. But, on the other hand, they will afford more room for speculation, and be more acceptable to those, who call themselves rational Christians.

Our author differs from the generality of his predecessors in the following points.

The word Spirit, he says, as commonly used in the scriptures, and always when applied to God, is purely a Hebrew idiom

idiom, a mere periphrasis, a redundancy, which may be generally omitted without any injury to the construction and scope of a passage: consequently, the Holy Spirit is no existence distinct from God himself.

According to the explanation of our author, the general import of the prophecy of Isaiah, chap. vii. 14. alluded to by St. Matthew is this: Ahaz and the house of Israel, are assured by the prophet, that within a period of time, sufficient for the production of a child, and its arrival to maturity, peace and plenty would be restored to the kingdom; and the land of his enemies become a desolation.—The prophet never meant to foretel the miraculous conception of our Saviour; and the evangelist applies the prophecy in his *usual* manner, by way of accommodation; a mode of argumentation, in credit at that time among the Jews.

With respect to the temptation, he says, our Lord appears either to have been in the same state, as that of Balaam: who heard, as it is written, the word of God, who saw the vision of the Almighty, falling into a trance (or with his face to the ground. See Ezek. i. 28. Dan. viii. 18. Rev. i. 17.) but having his eyes open. Where the effect was, in every respect, the same as would have been occasioned by a transaction in real life; because the senses were left, as usual, active and unrestrained: or to have only *meditated* upon these things, by revolving them in his own *mind*, as they were impressed upon it by the immediate power of God, at a season appropriated to this purpose: which supposition seems to be far more probable than the former. It was then, only a *mental* representation submitted to the calm deliberation of our Lord. But in either case, no actual appearance was exhibited to the eye.

Among other arguments, which he produces, in order to establish this notion, he maintains, that the devil, or satan, was not presented to the eyes of Christ, even in vision or idea; because, says he, no such personage as he, an incorrigibly wicked angel, the adversary of God and man, the counter-actor of the benevolent intentions of providence, and the plague of the human race, ever did, or does exist.—But this point (the non-existence of the devil) requiring some previous confirmation, our author considers it at large, and by various arguments endeavours to represent the doctrine of diabolism as a palpable absurdity.

The demoniacs he thinks (as many others indeed have done before him) were mad people, and so called by the evangelists, in conformity to the language and ideas of the Jews of our Saviour's time, who supposed them, who were thus afflict-

ed, to be possessed by demons inhabiting their bodies. A demon was esteemed to be the spirit of a dead man.

With respect to the duration of miraculous powers in the church, he adopts the opinion, advanced by Dr. Middleton.

' Have the miracles, says he, recorded by Christian writers in general any dignity or importance in themselves, their circumstances, or their object, to render them credible? In short, are they such, as any attestation whatever can authenticate? Very few, I presume, will be found in these degenerate times, possessed of that degree of heroic faith, which actuated the intrepid Tertullian; and be disposed to think these miracles worthy of belief, **BECAUSE** they are **ABSURD**; and **CERTAIN**, **BECAUSE** they are **IMPOSSIBLE**. But if, in conformity to reason and the scriptures, we limit the duration of miraculous powers in the church, to the times of our Saviour and his apostles\*, we secure every possible end of miracles, and escape the innumerable difficulties, which embarrass any other supposition: amongst which the assignation of the precise point of discontinuance is by no means the least.'

Our author rejects, as the reader will naturally suppose, the doctrine of the Trinity.—The following observation on the sentiments and authority of the fathers on this article is perfectly just:

' I have examined him [Origen] and other fathers, upon the subject of Christ's divinity, with great attention: and find their notions upon it so undigested, and their language so confused and inconsistent, as to make a clear and explicit deduction of their opinions absolutely impracticable. And truly the theological systems of such even deserve but little notice and respect, since their visionary and mysterious and childish comments on the scriptures have been superseded by a more rational, inquisitive, and critical method of interpretation. It is happy for us, that we can have recourse to the fountain head, and can drink the waters of life, unpolluted by such an impure conveyance. Let us strive to make the best use of our advantages.'

On the interval between death and the general resurrection, allowing no intermediate state, he has this just remark: ' If the soul sleep, or to speak more properly, if the man be insensible, during the interval between his death and the general resurrection, it will be the same thing to him, as if the resurrection were immediately subsequent to death. For, as there

\* To the end of the age, or the end of the Jewish dispensation.  
Mat. xxviii. 20.

will be no succession of ideas, and consequently no perception of the flux of time, these events will actually be coincident; because in such a state, one day is as a thousand years, and a thousand years as one day.'

His notion of future punishments is as follows: that the general conflagration will rouse all mankind from the sleep of death, and reinvigorate the latent principle of life in the organized body; that the righteous will be received into the happiness of heaven, and the wicked entirely consumed in the same fire, which will destroy the fabric of the material world. 'As this fire will not be extinguished, until all things in it are annihilated, it has been denominated in the New Testament an unquenchable or unextinguishable fire.'

This notion is liable to some objections; the author therefore modestly concludes his observation in this manner:

'To determine peremptorily upon such a momentous doctrine, and a point of revelation only, in which the scriptures certainly are not explicit, would border upon rashness and presumption. At least, however, there can be no hazard from a speculation, that tends to aggrandize the loving-kindness of our Creator. Let every reader examine for himself, and not immediately reject an opinion for its novelty, or contrariety to his former persuasions.'

These are *some* of the doctrines and sentiments, which this writer maintains in his commentary; by which the learned reader will perceive, that he is attached to no established system, but indulges himself in the utmost freedom of speculation on every subject; and, it must be allowed, that he supports his opinions with great ingenuity. His criticisms discover a very considerable share of learning and penetration, and what will be particularly acceptable to the generality of his readers, more originality than is to be found in any late publication of this nature. We shall therefore be much disappointed, if the author should not appear, in the future progress of his work, to be such a commentator, as we have long wished to see: a commentator, who critically attends to the oriental idioms; to the context and connexion, the argument and design of the sacred writers, and the peculiar circumstances and customs to which they allude; who accurately distinguishes those discourses, which are addressed to particular persons, from those which are applicable to all mankind, who, above all things, consults reason, entertains worthy notions of God, disregards theological schemes of faith, and investigates the genuine doctrines of Christianity with critical sagacity and manly freedom.

We must, however, take the liberty to intimate, that our author, on some occasions, discovers too much warmth; and that modesty and candor should constantly guide the pen of every man, who undertakes to explain or inculcate the amiable doctrines of Jesus Christ.

## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

### DIVINITY.

*Sermons by Humphry Whishaw, A. M. Canon Residentiary of the Cathedral Church, Hereford. 2 Vols. 4s. sewed. Law.*

THE author of these discourses does not attempt to amuse his readers with any new enquiries, refined sentiments, or elegant language; but writes in a plain, familiar, unelaborate style; such as is calculated to answer the purpose of a preacher, who wishes rather to instruct and edify his auditors, than acquire the reputation of an orator.

The subjects of which he treats are, the Importance of forming right Notions of God; of God's Government of the World; of Civil Government; of the Original Religion of Man; of Christian Perfection; of forming an Idea of God; of human Nature; of loving God; of the Right of trying the Spirits; of selling what we have and giving to the Poor; of Stedfastness in Religion; of Persecution; of Pharisaical Righteousness; of Charity covering a Multitude of Sins; of the Nature and Design of Christianity.

Vol. II. Of God's reconciling the World to himself; of receiving the Grace of God in vain; of the advantages of Christianity; of living after the Spirit; of working out our own Salvation; of the true Nature of the Kingdom of God; of Mercy being more acceptable than Sacrifice; of the Lord's Supper; of the great Debt of Love; of studying to be great and doing our own Business; of the Duty of Servants; of the Folly of Sin; and of the Qualifications necessary to a holy Life.

On these subjects the author's arguments and observations are, generally speaking, clear and rational; founded on a liberal interpretation of scripture, and a just idea of Christianity, and the moral attributes of the Deity.

The following extract will exemplify these remarks. It is well known, in what manner Calvinistic writers have declaimed on the depravity of human nature, and the moral impotency of man. Our author, in explaining the words of St. Paul, Phil. ii. 12, 13. Work out your own salvation, &c. thus endeavours to give us a more elevated notion of our faculties and powers.

It is to be observed, that by whatever means or motives men become truly religious, God may so far be said to work in them; because in some sense or other, all the good we do, is derived from him; and religion, in particular, hath him for its object. Every pious thought that rises in our minds; every sober and serious

serious reflection; and every good action too, may properly enough be said to come from God; because it was he that gave us those faculties and powers, by which we conceive and produce these effects. Our sufficiency, therefore, is certainly of God; because, in him we live and move, and have our being: and he truly works in us both to will and to do, because our ability to will and work is all originally from him. But to say that we perceive in ourselves these noble faculties, a power to reason and understand, to reflect and consider, to will and determine our motions and actions as we please; and yet, that all this while we have no power in ourselves either to think, or will, or do, what is good, but that all must be wrought in us by God, or by the immediate agency and operation of his spirit. This, I say, is a notion, which, under a pretence of raising God's glory, is really an injury and diminution to it; because, it not only denies him the glory of those excellencies which are visible in human nature; but it also represents him, though an infinitely wise, and good, and holy Being, to have made a race of insignificant, worthless creatures, who have nothing in them but filth and corruption. But certainly, if God made us what we are, it is no more for his glory, to say, that he moves us, than to say that he hath made us capable of moving ourselves; and that we are able, by the help of our natural faculties, to apply such moral motives, as he is pleased to give us, without a foreign impulse and impression upon us at the same time; unless his glory is so much the greater, by how much the more imperfect and unlike himself, his creatures are made.

'If therefore, we consider the matter rightly, it is no derogation from God's glory, that we claim any share in this work ourselves; because, as we do not pretend to have made ourselves, but to have received both our being and faculties from God, the glory of all must ultimately redound, not to ourselves, but to him that made us; neither can our good actions be the less acceptable to God, for being (as it were) of our own growth; because they are indeed but the natural fruit and effects of the powers he hath given us, and which he gave us too, for that very purpose; by which therefore, he, not improperly, may be said to work in us.'

This is a doctrine infinitely more rational, and likely to excite a virtuous emulation, than the wretched system of those, who paint human nature in the most unpleasing colours, and endeavour to magnify the Creator by depreciating his works.

*Sacred History selected from the Scriptures, with Annotations and Reflections, suited to the Comprehension of young Minds. Vol. II.*  
By Mrs. Trimmer, 2mo. 3s. sewed. Robinson.

This volume contains the Jewish history, from the numbering of the Israelites, before their departure from Mount Sinai, to David's victory over Goliath.

There are many difficulties in the course of this history, which require the greatest learning and judgement to explain, and accommodate to the capacities of children. Mrs. Trimmer very wisely declines the arduous task of determining controverted questions,

and contents herself with suggesting those practical reflections which are obvious and instructive. Speaking of Jephthah's vow, she says :

' I fancy, my dear, you are quite dissatisfied with Jephthah, and what to say in his excuse I know not, for indeed I find it has puzzled the learned. It is thought by most authors, that he did not offer his daughter for a burnt sacrifice, but only devoted her to the service of God, and that she passed the rest of her days in acts of religion. It is much beyond my abilities to decide this difficult point ; but if we never come to any certainty about it, it will be of no real consequence to us. Let us however consider, what instruction this affecting history affords, and you will find that you may derive advantage from it.'

Jephthah certainly did not sacrifice his daughter. The pronoun יְהִי relates to יְהָוָה the Lord ; and the words should be rendered, *And I will offer to him* (that is, to the Lord) *a burnt offering.*

We could have wished, that the observations of our fair commentator had been more concise. In a book designed for children, or for common people, nothing should be admitted, but what is of the utmost importance. A long detail fatigues the mind, and overloads the memory ; and has a tendency to frustrate the author's good design, by rendering the work too voluminous for general use.

*The Utility and Importance of Human Learning, stated in a Sermon preached in the Parish Church of Ashford, in Kent. By Francis Whitfield. 4to. 1s. Johnson.*

This writer very properly and judiciously represents the utility and importance of human learning to civil society, and to true religion.

#### M E D I C A L.

*Some Thoughts on the Relaxation of Human Bodies, and the Misapplication of the Bark in that and some other Cases. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Nichol.*

We cannot announce these 'Thoughts' with marks of approbation. They are the crude undigested observations, which an extensive practice seems to have dictated, but which calm reflection has never arranged. It would be an unpleasing task to point out every thing that is exceptionable in the matter or the manner ; we shall therefore shortly state the opinions and intentions of the author.

There are many conditions of the body which, in his opinion, seem to indicate relaxation, while the real disease is very different ; and it is one of his most important observations that, in putrid fevers, the apparent lowness will be often relieved by laxatives. We believe it a very general, and we know it to be a pernicious error, to use the bark indiscriminately on the first appearance of languor and debility in these complaints ; for, in the early states, they often arise from a load in the stomach and bowels. This method is, indeed, an old one ; and so old as to be forgotten

forgotten by the inattentive practitioner, or the sanguine theorist. The other causes of relaxation to which our author thinks the barkless useful, are diminished diet, hard drinking, suppression of usual evacuations, epidemic contagions, lurking venereal taint. Even in nervous and intermittent diseases, he thinks it may be sometimes superseded by gentle purgatives or alteratives; and in gun-shot wounds, by dilating them, and carefully removing splinters.

These opinions will not be warmly controverted. They are, indeed, just; but they are in general too well known to engage our attention. The rest scarcely deserves notice; and we would willingly spare our readers the disgust which we have so powerfully experienced from the trifling and mistaken opinions of the author of this pamphlet.

*The Anticipation of the Crisis. Addressed to the Nobility and Gentry of Great Britain and Ireland.* 8vo. 1s. Bowen.

In the late awful situation of public affairs, while ravens croaked, and tribes of reformers issued from their garrets, to perplex us by their Utopian schemes, we sat down to this pamphlet with fearful expectation. The Crisis, we had been already told, was at hand; and here, fatal destiny! it was anticipated. We continued to read, with honest anguish, in hopes of detecting some mistake, and proving to our disconsolate friends, that the fatal hour was perhaps not so near as was expected. The first page cherished our delusion. It was about 'national security and national interest,' that is, as we supposed, our alarming debt, and the ways and means of paying the interest. But we were soon undeceived: we met with the names of Sloane, Garth, and Harvey—names not known at Jonathan's. We at last arrived at 'frauds;' and, to our utter astonishment, found that these were not the frauds of brokers, but of physicians; and the Crisis, which had so dreadfully alarmed us, was in fact the Crisis of a Fever. We proceeded to read about 'hair-breadth 'scapes,' and were now more nearly interested; we found the whole faculty in combination against us, and that our only safety was in Mr. R. White, and his Hermetic Febrifuge. The alexiterial water is, in our author's opinion, a dreadful medicine, and is (odd alternative!) either useless or deadly. But we have been informed, with unusual candor, by some of the faculty, that this very noxious medicine is generally taken from the pump. We were then less alarmed, but at last are told, that by neglecting this hermetic febrifuge, 'the kingdom had lost a Grenville, a Beckford, a Boscawen, and very recently a Rockingham.' On proceeding to the cases, we read, as we expected, the praises of the author's remedy. Unlike many of his tribe, who have the good of mankind *only* at heart, we found our author very partial in the distribution of his remedy. Some were left to languish three weeks, because he had little to spare; others had enough for repeated illnesses. In this respect he is also very unlike the regular part of the faculty, who generally let every one have enough, provided they can pay for it.

## POLITICAL.

*An Answer to that Part of the Narrative of Lieutenant-general Sir Henry Clinton, K. B. which relates to the Conduct of Lieutenant-general Earl Cornwallis, during the Campaign in North America, in the Year 1781. By Earl Cornwallis.* 8vo. 3s. Debrett.

Having, in our last Review, given a faithful abstract of sir Henry Clinton's Narrative, we shall, with the same impartiality, present our readers with a general account of what is urged, in opposition to it, by earl Cornwallis.

His lordship sets out with observing, that the written documents, hitherto produced, relative to the unfortunate campaign in 1781, are not complete, either in form or substance. That there were many deficiencies in the papers laid before the house of lords; in particular, four letters, dated July the 24th, August the 16th, 20th, and 22d, from him to sir Henry Clinton, were wanting; one of which contained his lordship's reasons at large for undertaking the march into Virginia. This omission, as the secretary of state informed the house, was owing to the letters not having been transmitted by the commander in chief. Four other letters, it is observed, (three of them dated the 2d, 27th, and 30th of August, and one the 14th, 15th, and 18th of October) from sir Henry Clinton to earl Cornwallis, were read to the lords according to the order of their dates, though they were only delivered to his lordship, by the secretary to the commander in chief, in the latter end of November, at New-York, above a month after the fatal issue of the southern expedition; and consequently their contents could have no influence on his lordship's conduct.

Lord Cornwallis informs us, that his march into North Carolina, in the begining of the year 1781, was thought expedient not only by himself, but by the commander in chief. His lordship was principally induced to decide in favour of its expediency from a clear conviction, that, without the most active exertion of the troops allotted for this service, all the efforts of Britain, in the American war, would prove vain; and that, while the provincials could draw supplies from North Carolina and Virginia, the defence of the frontier of South Carolina, even against an inferior army, would be, from its extent, the nature of the climate, and the disposition of the inhabitants, utterly impracticable. In this opinion his lordship was confirmed, by the many untoward circumstances, which occurred during the four months succeeding the victory of Camden.

His lordship observes, that the disaster of the 17th of January cannot be imputed to any defect in his conduct; as the detachment was superior to the force against which it was sent, and put under the command of an officer of experience and tried abilities.

Lord Cornwallis was afterwards obliged, by the wants and distresses of his army, to move to Cross-Creek; but meeting with no material part of the promised assistance and supplies, he was obliged

obliged to continue his march to Wilmington, where hospitals and stores were ready for his troops. Of this movement he sent information by several expresses to lord Rawdon, but unfortunately they all failed. His intention then was, as soon as he should have equipped his own corps, and received a part of the expected reinforcement from Ireland, to return to the upper country; in hopes of giving some protection to South Carolina, and of preserving the health of the troops, until new measures could be concerted with the commander in chief.

The march of general Greene into South Carolina, and lord Rawdon's danger, made lord Cornwallis's situation, we are informed, very critical. Having heard of the arrival of a packet from Europe, without any certain accounts of the sailing of the reinforcement, he thought it too hazardous to remain inactive; and, it being impossible to receive in time any orders or opinions from sir Henry Clinton, he was under the necessity of acting entirely from his own judgement and experience. He, therefore, upon mature deliberation, determined to march into Virginia, as the safest and most effectual means of employing the small corps, under his command, in contributing towards the general success of the war. The reasons which induced him to this resolution were principally the following.—He could not remain at Wilmington, lest general Greene should prove successful against lord Rawdon, and, by returning to North Carolina, have it in his power to cut off every means of saving the small British army, except that disgraceful one of an embarkation, with the total loss of the cavalry. From the shortness of lord Rawdon's stock of provisions, and the great distance from Wilmington to Camden, it appeared impossible, that any direct movement of lord Cornwallis's could afford him the smallest prospect of relief. In case of a misfortune to lord Rawdon, the safety of lord Cornwallis's own corps might have been endangered by the attempt. Or, if the former extricated himself, the force in South Carolina, when assembled, was, in the earl's opinion, sufficient to secure what was valuable to them, and capable of defence in that province. Lord Cornwallis was also influenced by having just received an account from Charles Town of the arrival of a frigate with dispatches from the commander in chief, the substance of which, then transmitted to his lordship, was, that general Phillips had been detached to the Chesapeak, and put under his lord's orders. This induced his lordship to hope, that solid operations might be adopted in that quarter. He was firmly persuaded, that, until Virginia was reduced, we could not hold the more southern provinces; and that, after its reduction, they would fall without much resistance, and be retained without much difficulty.

With these sentiments he joined general Phillips's corps at Petersburgh on the 20th of May, a few days after the death of that officer; from whose papers, and the dispatches from the commander in chief, directed to him, which lord Cornwallis received

ed at that place on the 24th of May, he found there were in contemplation other projects, which to him were entirely new. The commander in chief having desired general Phillips to give his opinion concerning the scheme of operations in the Upper Chesapeake, and the design upon Philadelphia, lord Cornwallis, who was in the deceased general's place, thought it his duty to offer his own opinion on those subjects. He therefore wrote to sir Henry Clinton, that he could not see sufficient grounds for approving of either of those schemes; nor could he consider any other plan, but the attempt to reduce Virginia, at that time either expedient or important. He informed sir Henry Clinton, however, that he should repair to Williamsburgh about the time when he should probably receive his excellency's answer, in order to be in readiness to execute his commands; and that he should employ the interval in destroying such of the enemy's stores and magazines, as might be within his reach.

Lord Cornwallis observes, that he had now no other alternative than that of complying with the requisition made by sir Henry Clinton, of such troops as his lordship could spare from a healthy defensive station, or engaging in operations in the Upper Chesapeake. While sir Henry Clinton stated in so strong terms the imminent danger of New-York, or the important effects which he expected from the expedition against Philadelphia, lord Cornwallis did not think himself authorized to detain any part of the troops, merely upon his opinion of the difference of the quality of the air of Williamsburgh, York, or Portsmouth; from the latter of which only, as it was already fortified, he could afford an immediate detachment. In order, therefore, to comply with the requisition of the commander in chief, lord Cornwallis passed James-river (his remaining force being insufficient to fortify and maintain a post on the Williamsburgh-neck), and embarked with all possible dispatch the troops which sir Henry Clinton required. It appears from the correspondence, as lord Cornwallis observes, that the commander in chief's opinion of the indispensable necessity of a harbour for line of battle ships is only suggested in a letter subsequent to the information he had received, that the troops, intended for the expedition against Philadelphia would be soon ready to sail.

Hampton-road had, it seems, been recommended for that enterprise; but as it was, upon examination, found totally unfit for the purpose, lord Cornwallis contends that the order did then, in its spirit, become positive to occupy York and Gloucester; the only harbour in the Chesapeake in which, so far as ever he has been informed, line of battle ships can be received, and protected against a superior naval force.

Lord Cornwallis observes, that when the arrival of the French fleet, and the approach of general Washington, were known to sir Henry Clinton, the latter, in all his dispatches, uniformly promised his lordship relief in person; without giving him any discretionary power, different from holding the posts that he occupied.

cupied. Lord Cornwallis therefore appeals, whether, under these circumstances, and as he could not but suppose that the commander in chief spoke from a perfect knowledge of his own resources, and of the force of the enemy, it would have been justifiable in him (lord Cornwallis) either to abandon, by the evacuation of York, a considerable quantity of artillery, the ships of war, transports, provisions, stores, and hospitals, or, by venturing an action, without the clearest prospect of advantage, to run the risk of precipitating them.

From the whole of those transactions \* lord Cornwallis draws this inference, that his conduct and opinions were not the causes of the catastrophe, which terminated the unfortunate campaign of 1781. The military vigour, abilities, and intrepidity of earl Cornwallis have been too manifestly signalized ever to be called in question ; and, when the parties have finished the controversy, it will probably be ascertained, as we suggested in our last Review, that the unfortunate campaign of 1781 was not the consequence, either of precipitation on one hand, or remissness on the other, but of a series of disasters which the commanders, however vigilant, could not foresee.

*A Free and Impartial Examination of the Preliminary Articles of Pacification, signed at Paris, January 20, 1783.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Fielding.

A recital of the Articles of Peace between Great Britain and the several belligerent powers, accompanied with cursory, superficial observations on each.

*The Case and Claim of the American Loyalists impartially stated and considered.* 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

The case of these unfortunate men, it must be confessed, is extremely distressing, and calls aloud for the most serious attention of the legislature. For refusing their concurrence in the American revolt, their persons were attainted, their property confiscated, and they were reduced to the necessity of flying from their native country, to avoid the violence of their persecutors. During their exile, however, they still lived in hope, that they would be, in the end, restored to the enjoyment of their former possessions, either by the authority of the British government being re-established in America, or by a positive stipulation in their favour, if, as has happened, the dispute should terminate by a formal acknowledgment of the independency of the American provinces. How melancholy, therefore, must be their condition, to find that, in the treaty of peace, their dearest interests, and the very means of their subsistence, are left entirely at the mercy of their implacable enemies ! The claimants have certainly a title to redress, not from the humanity only, but the justice of the nation. By a proclamation, issued on the 23d of August, 1775, and

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\* Which are confirmed by a multiplicity of letters on the subject.

transmitted

transmitted by the secretary of state to the several governors of the colonies, the inhabitants were commanded to use their utmost endeavours to withstand and suppress the rebellion; and they were assured that the law would afford protection to their loyalty and zeal. Lord Viscount Howe, then acting as one of his majesty's commissioners, published a proclamation in the year 1776, assuring the colonists that due consideration should be had to the meritorious services of all persons who should assist in restoring the public tranquillity; and the promise of protection, it appears, was farther confirmed by the commissioners sent to America in 1778.

Independently, however, of the sanction of those authorities, the loyalists humbly contend that they have a right to indemnification, upon the principle of the reciprocal duties subsisting between men who are united by the political bond of society. In support of this doctrine they quote a number of apposite passages from the most eminent civilians; and they enforce their arguments by the specification of several instances, in which the British legislature has actually indemnified persons who had suffered loss by adhering, during times of public commotion, to the government of their country. To satisfy the claim of these unfortunate loyalists, will doubtless require a very extraordinary compensation; but, considering their great distresses, and the validity of their title to retribution, the interposition of the legislature, in their behalf, even amidst the plans of national economy, appears to be indispensable. An unjustifiable sacrifice of the interests of those faithful adherents, we are sorry to say, has been made by the British government; and there is little reason to hope that this precipitate measure can be remedied by any recommendation to the American states.

*Free Parliaments: or, a Vindication of the Parliamentary Constitution of England.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Debrett.

The author of this pamphlet endeavours to vindicate the constitution of parliament, from those who at present are industriously exerting themselves towards procuring an alteration of it. He observes, that, among these speculators, there are no less than three different opinions. One is in favour of annual parliaments; another for biennial, and the third for triennial. The advocates for the first go so far as to maintain, that annual parliaments are an Englishman's birthright; and that any parliament chosen otherwise than for one year, is an illegal parliament. Our author justly observes, that those who make such bold assertions, would do well to consider seriously to what they lead; which is indeed to nothing less than an abrogation of all the laws enacted by every parliament after the first year from its election.

The author next proceeds to shew, that the claim of right to annual parliaments is not founded in truth, and is only a visionary principle assumed by political speculators for the sake of imposing upon the public. He observes, that in respect to the duration of parliament, Magna Charta is totally silent; which could not have

been the case, had the barons claimed any right of establishing a decision on that subject. With regard to the number and periods of those parliaments, which were held by the several kings, from the Conquest to Henry the Third, our author contends that no inference, in any degree decisive, can be drawn; because the persons summoned to those parliaments were not properly representative of the people, but held their place in the national council only by the authority of the crown.

The first summons of representatives of the people, it is remarked, was in the year 1264, the forty-ninth of Henry the Third; but even then no law was made for the duration of parliament. The author farther contends, that no argument can be drawn, either for, or against the question, from the practice of those early times; for no regular custom was established. Sometimes parliament sat twice in the same year, and at other times no parliament met during several years. In consequence of this irregularity, a statute was enacted, in the fourth of Edward the Third, for the holding of parliaments annually. It is here, as the author observes, that the mistake (if it has not been wilful) seems to have been made in the claim to annual parliaments. The abettors of parliamentary reform, thence inferring that new parliaments were called annually in this reign, by a statute which has not been repealed, affirm that the people have a right by law to elect a new parliament every year. But our author observes, that, had they read the whole statute, or consulted the subsequent statutes of the thirty-sixth of Edward the Third, or the second of Richard the Second, they would have perceived their error.

Some of the advocates for annual parliaments have ventured to affirm, that formerly parliaments sat only one session; that at the end of every session the parliament was dissolved; and, therefore, that the laws for the meeting of the parliament annually, applied alike to the electing of a new parliament annually. But so far from their assertion being well founded, the author adduces unquestionable authorities of the contrary being the fact. And he observes, that if the freeholders and freemen have a right to an annual election, the king has no right to dissolve the parliament; because the dissolution would in course take place at the end of the annual session. If the claim to such a right is just, the prerogative to dissolve whenever the crown sees fit, is a usurpation. But if, on the contrary, the prerogative be just, the claim to such right is an attempt at usurpation.

Such are the arguments advanced by this intelligent writer, in refutation of what has been affirmed, with respect to annual parliaments, by political speculators. What he observes, in regard to the bad consequences of investing the right of election in multitudes of low people, is equally agreeable to reason, and to the experience of the nation in the reign of Henry the Sixth, when a law for restraining the right of election was enacted. He also makes several judicious remarks on the farther consequences of those

those measures, which have been so warmly recommended by the advocates of parliamentary reformation. The pamphlet merits the attention of all who would form an impartial judgment of that important subject; and may have the effect of allaying the prejudices of such as have unwarily adopted opinions, from misrepresentation, or the influence of party.

*A Letter to the Earl of Shelburne, &c. from a Noble Earl of the Kingdom of Ireland, upon the Subject of final Explanation respecting the Legislative Rights of Ireland.* 8vo. 15.6d Robinson.

This Letter, said to be written by an Irish lord, relates to the scheme of procuring from the British parliament a formal renunciation of its legislative authority over Ireland. His lordship is a strenuous advocate for the requisition of his countrymen; but while he urges a compliance with it as necessary for securing the independence of Ireland, he readily acknowledges the moderation and liberality of the British government.

*An honest Man's Reasons for supporting the present Ministry.* 8vo. 1s. Fielding.

If we may credit this *honest man*, he is a member of parliament. But whether he support the ministry by his vote or his pen, or by both, he must change his avowed sentiments before he become a partisan for Mr. Fox, with whom he declares himself dissatisfied. Lord Shelburne is, in his opinion, the only man who deserves to be minister; and, to set off that nobleman's abilities and virtues to greater advantage, he inveighs, in the severest terms against the administration of Lord North.

*Confederation of Taxes, submitted to Lord North.* By J. R. Staub. 8vo. 25.6d. Axtell.

The author of this pamphlet arrogates the merit of having furnished lord North with several useful hints in respect of taxation; and he is of opinion, that the means which he advised contributed, in a great measure, to give stability to the stocks.

*The Chronicle of the Kingdom of the Cassiterides, under the Reign of the House of Lunen.* A Fragment. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

The story of the American war, related in a style resembling that of the Bible.—Were there any real merit, or entertainment, in such an imitation, this might be reckoned a tolerable performance.

*Remarks on the Letters from an American Farmer; or, a Detection of the Errors of Mr. Hector St. John.* 8vo. 6d. Fielding.

Of the Letters which are the subject of these Remarks, we gave an account in our Review for April last, where we represented them as partly narrative, and partly declamatory. The author of the present pamphlet (whether from any particular information, we are not told) considers them as the work of some insidious Frenchman, whose object is to excite among the people of this country a desire of emigrating to America. That the Letters may be in part fictitious, is not improbable; but whether the Remarker's suspicion be well or ill founded, we cannot take upon us to determine.

*Cursory Remarks on a late fanatical Publication, entitled A full Detection of Popery, &c. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.*

The author of these Remarks, who professes himself a Roman Catholic, and is no contemptible writer, seems to have taken more pains than were necessary, in the refutation of the insignificant pamphlet, entitled, *A full Detection of Popery*. We cannot forbear quoting the following observations, as they must give pleasure to every liberal protestant.

'Lo, Mr. Williams has crossed the Alps and Pyrenees! and, surely he has travelled to some purpose, since he has *seen*, what no other tour-maker is likely to discover, "that not a single shade, received from the bigotry of former times, is yet taken off." Addison, who was at least as accurate an observer as Mr. Williams, seems to have been of a different opinion. He found, even in his time, "that there had been a kind of secret reformation made in the Roman Catholic church, since the spreading of the Protestant religion;" and, though, in my opinion, he ascribes this to a wrong, or at least only a partial cause, the fact itself is indisputable. The cloud of superstition, which gathered during the ages of ignorance, and which had so long hung over the Christian world, has been continually dissipating since the *re-s*-*vival* of letters; and the *Catholic* as well as the *Protestant* hemisphere, grows every day brighter and brighter. If some spots of darkness still remain, it is hoped that the sunshine of a sober philosophy will soon dispel them; and produce, at length, that serenity of disposition among the human species, which every generous heart must wish to behold.—In the mean time, I would advise Mr. Williams to cross the *Alps* and *Pyrenees* once again, and examine the temper and disposition of that part of the globe a little more narrowly, before he ventures to make such another ridiculous *desy*. If he travels with open eyes, he will see, at *Rome* itself *Protestants* caressed, encouraged, and rewarded, according to their degree of eminence, industry, and merit; he will see *English protestants*, in particular, meet with more regard and attention than perhaps at any other court in Europe.—He will see, in some parts of *Italy*, that political and religious liberty is as well understood, and as tenaciously maintained, as in any other country;—He will see the power of an odious tribunal abolished at *Naples*, abolishing at *Madrid*, and abridged at *Lisbon*. He will see a great number of idle festivals retrenched from the calendar, and frugal industry take place, on those days of dissipation. He will see the learned and zealous of the clergy, using their utmost endeavours to eradicate old prejudices, to explode false miracles, to expunge fabulous legends, to correct all popular abuses, and to excite their respective flocks, both by words and example, to live "soberly, justly, and piously," according to the rules of the gospel.—In fine, he will see an intelligent pontiff, authorising vernacular translations of the *Holy Scriptures*; and declaring in the most explicit manner, that "they are sources to which all the faithful ought to have free access,

access, in order thence to draw a sound doctrine, and pure morality."—I, after seeing all this, he returns and repeats his injurious assertion, we shall consider him as an incurable; and, if need be, contribute to procure him a convenient lodging in St. Luke's.

*Observations on the Election of Members for the Borough of Ludlow, in 1780.* 8vo. 1s. No Publisher's name.

This pamphlet contains an account of some transactions relative to the election at Ludlow, not unusual, it is probable, at other places. The author's design seems to be, to favour the project of an alteration in the mode of elections. But he ought first to consider, whether greater evils may not arise from the proposed reform. In the mean time, we are sorry to find, that he has unjustly attacked the character of one of the members for the county of Salop; a gentleman whose innocent and well-meant zeal, on the subject of religion, ought to have exempted him from censure.

*The Tables turned.* By Richard Hill, Esq. 8vo. 6d. Stockdale.

This is a letter to the author of the preceding Observations, from Richard Hill, esq. the gentleman to whom we just now alluded. We find from this Letter, that the author of the Observations is suspected to be a clergyman; and, upon the authority of such a suspicion, Mr. Hill thinks himself justifiable for having recourse, in the present controversy, to arguments drawn from scripture. These, therefore, he uses, both with force and exten-

terity, against his clerical antagonist.

*A Letter to Richard Hill, Esq.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

This letter is written by the person suspected to be a clergyman; who, after indulging himself in a variety of observations on political intrigues, proceeds to vindicate his own conduct, in not being restrained, by the exercise of the clerical function, from interfering in those transactions which relate to the secular interests of society.

*Six Letters to the Burgees of Ludlow.* 8vo. 1s. Debrett.

The writer of these Letters is a warm friend to Mr. Hill, whose conduct, in introducing religious sentiments into parliamentary debates, he endeavours to vindicate; and he makes several pertinent remarks on what has been published by that gentleman's antagonist. Both parties, however, it must be acknowledged, have given too much way to acrimony in this frivolous and uninteresting dispute.

*A Reply to the Ludlow Burgees's Letter to Richard Hill, Esq.* 8vo. 1s. Baldwin.

A continuation of personal rancour and illiberality, on a subject in which the public is totally unconcerned, and which the parties ought immediately to terminate.

*An Address to the President of the Protestant Association.* 8vo. 1s.  
Faulder.

The principal object of this address, which is extremely unequal in its style, is to condemn the persecuting spirit of the Protestant Association, as well as the factious conduct of its president. We shall not attempt to vindicate either the Protestant Association or its president; though, at the same time, we think that the author of the Address has treated them both with a severity, which, in respect at least of their intentions, may perhaps be equally injurious. Misguided zeal is an object of compassion rather than invective.

*Sequel to an Essay on the Origin and Progress of Government.*  
8vo. 1s. Cadell.

The greater part of this pamphlet is employed in animadversions on the government during several years past. The author has adjusted all his remarks upon the reputed principles of Whigs and Tories; distinctions which have been so often falsified, that they no longer deserve any attention. This ridiculous language is now nothing more than the jargon of politics; and serves only to expose the prejudice of those who use it. The author under our consideration is not exempt from this charge, in several instances; but he is untainted with the pernicious doctrine, that the whole body of the people ought to enjoy a vote in the election of representatives.

*The Nature and Extent of Supreme Power.* By M. Dawes, Esq.  
8vo. 1s. Stockdale.

This pamphlet consists of a Letter to the Rev. Mr. David Williams (author of the Letters on Political Liberty) shewing the ultimate end of all human power, and of a free government under God. The author explains Mr. Locke's theory of government in a sense contrary to the supposition of an inherent supremacy of the people. The authority of Mr. Locke is held by some almost as absolute on the theory of government, as ever that of Aristotle was in metaphysics, during the most flourishing times of scholastic learning: and it is at this moment deemed almost sacrilege in politics to question, if supported by the venerable sanction of his name, even such principles as directly tend to subvert the balance of the British constitution. We entertain a high opinion of Mr. Locke as a speculative philosopher; but, in matters of politics, he was not without his errors, whether of judgment or inclination we shall not determine. It is, however, for the improvement of knowledge at least, that his errors, as well as the misconstruction of his interpreters, should be corrected; and of such an attempt, the pamphlet before us is a laudable example.

*Observations on the Preliminary and Provisional Articles.* 8vo. 1s.  
Debrett.

This author labours to prove, from a comparative view of the situation of this country now, and at the close of the former war, that the articles of the late treaty of peace, if not more benefi-

cial to Great Britain than the terms procured by the treaty of Paris in 1763, are equally advantageous. Had this proposition been established upon a fair comparative view, we should very readily have admitted the justness of it; but the representation given by the author is so far from being faithful, that it is directly the reverse of the truth. He scruples not to affirm, that, even in the last campaign, the combined fleets of our enemies rode masters of the sea, while ours were under the necessity of keeping within our own ports; though it be notorious to all the world, that we threw succours and provisions into Gibraltar, in the face of the most powerful fleet which France and Spain united could assemble. Every concession is justified by this author upon the principle of liberality; a rule by which none of the belligerent powers, except ourselves, we are sorry to find, has thought proper to be governed. It must, however, be acknowledged, that in the present case there was a circumstance, which, though it cannot justify, may in some degree apologize for a greater degree of liberality than was ever before admitted into political negociation. For it could hardly be expected, that concessions of an inferior nature should be obstinately refused by ministers who had already, at the requisition of our enemies, and indeed almost without a murmur in the nation, agreed to sacrifice an empire.

## POETRY.

*An heroic Epistle to the Right Hon. Lord Viscount Sackville.* 4to.  
15. 6d. Kearsley.

This writer attacks his lordship with great asperity on his conduct at Minden, on his having been Secretary of State for the American department, and on his peerage. His performance would deserve approbation, were personal satire a laudable species of composition.

*Ode to a Friend, on our leaving South Carolina.* 4to. 1s.  
Dodsley.

The subjects which the author introduces into this Ode, are the pernicious effects of civil war, the duty of the patriotic hero, the virtues of humanity and universal benevolence, the blessings of peace, mutual confidence and friendship, the unhappy state of the slaves in Carolina, and the charms of two American ladies, the favourites of the poet and his friend. The picture of one of them is drawn in the following stanza:

‘ So shines my Laura’s angel face,  
Illum’d by sentiment and wit;  
Where freedom dwells, with ev’ry grace,  
And frolic Fancy joys to fit.  
Bright round her *shines her raven hair*,  
The halo of this solar star:  
Bright shine her eyes, which glancing fire,  
Kindle the warmest raptures of my lyre,  
And light the purest flame, that beauty can inspire.’

This

This may be sufficient to give the reader an idea of the author's poetical abilities, as well as the personal attractions of his Laura.

*Distress. A Poem.* By Robert Nunn, Cranbrook, Kent 4to. 2s. 6d. Wilkie.

This poem was occasioned, as we are informed in the Preface, by the cruel and unprecedented behaviour of a dissenting congregation, who dismissed the author from his ministry among them, after he had spent twenty-six years of his life in their service, without assigning to him any other reason for their procedure, than a false one; viz. that they were not able to maintain a minister; though, at the same time, they intended to invite another, and to increase the salary. This act of duplicity, and, as it seems to be, shameful inhumanity, together with the death of his wife and three children, has thrown the author into a state of dejection and distress, which he represents in a pathetical strain of deep and unfeigned sorrow. Several parts of this poem, while they excite the reader's sympathy and compassion, will give him pleasure. There is a laudable spirit of poetry in the following lines.

Farewell, ye sublunary scenes, and sad !  
 Hung round with 'scutcheons, and in mourning clad ;  
 Where cruel War and ghastly Famine rage ;  
 And sudden sweep life's temporary stage ;  
 Where pale Disease destructive pow'r assumes,  
 And fills the world with hospitals and tombs ;  
 Where pains the body rack, the limbs distort,  
 And fix their arrows in the sicken'd heart ;  
 Where poignant grief o'erwhelms the human mind,  
 Robs it of reason, and distracts mankind ;  
 Where Hope by Disappointment's dagger bleeds,  
 And woe to woe with speedy step succeeds ;  
 Where Poverty stalks forth in all her gloom,  
 And leads her children penive to the tomb ;  
 Where Death, the monarch of this tragic scene,  
 With rage infatiate, and with poniard keen,  
 Spreads ruin wide—and when the tyrant calls,  
 The drama closes, and the curtain falls.

We are glad to find, that the author has been assisted by many respectable subscribers.

*A Poem, sacred to the Memory of the late Sir John Clarke, Bart.*  
 By Joseph Gellibrand. 4to. 1s. Buckland.

A tribute of respect and affection paid to the memory of Sir John Clarke ; and inscribed to Lady Clarke, the mother of the late Sir John. This poem is therefore, as the reader will naturally imagine, a direct panegyric on the virtues of the deceased.

Exalted virtue (says the poet,) in a mind so young,  
 Gain'd ev'ry heart, and dwelt on ev'ry tongue.

They call'd religion by Philander's name,  
For goodness and Philander were the same.'

The language is generally correct, and the versification tolerably harmonious. The following lines, however, are defective in both these particulars :

' The cup received from thy father's hand,  
Was drank obedient to his high command.'

*An Essay on Genius. In Two Parts. By the Rev. A. Purhouse, A. M. 4to. 20s. 6d. Dodsley.*

The author seems to have proposed Pope's *Essay on Criticism*, as his model ; and, like that celebrated poet, gives some general rules in regard to poetical composition. We carry the comparison no farther. Pope's essay is perspicuous, shrewd, and instructive ; but this on *Genius* obscure, dull, and absurd. We shall present the reader with a short extract, and desire he would attend to the simile, as it is one of the most curious that has lately fallen under our observation, both as to the composition and application.

' Yet not the will commands the poet's lays,  
Nor head laborious always wears the bays.  
As when stormy waves, heaving mountain-high,  
Their heads, print briny kisses on the sky,  
A dead calm often follows on the storm,  
All sunk, and smooth, and still, and uniform.  
So acts the Muse, surpriz'd by sudden fires,  
Which spread avast, and cherish her desires ;  
A phrenzy fills the irritable soul,  
A lofty spirit then inspires the whole :  
Seiz'd with this phrenzy that exalts the mind,  
She soars, and leaves the world afar behind ;  
The gaping crowd admire the mighty force,  
And dext'rous judgement that directs her course,  
In raptures all to the bold flight attend,  
Eye her with passion, and with rage command.  
But soon her efforts fail in the design,  
She droops, and lingers in an abject line.  
The mental pow'r's thus flacken'd, oft in vain  
The Muse attempts her ardour to regain ;  
Laborious, plodding, dry, and dull she tries,  
To rouse her vigour, and resume the skies,  
But to the bathos she mistakes her flight' —

Of this fatal mistake we have a lamentable instance now before us, and hope the author will be induced to suppress the second part, which, he says, ' will in time follow of course ; unless the want of success should indicate that the writer has been guilty of a misapprehension of his talents.' — For our parts, we think, that if he has any talents, he has totally misapplied them.

*A Poem on the approaching Peace.* By David Pugh. 4to. 6d.  
Fielding.

Never was the return of peace celebrated in strains so contemptible as this rhapsody, the author of which appears to be equally deficient in description, versification, and sentiment. The following lines may serve as a specimen.

Camden and Thurlow's counsels well observ'd,  
Will call you back to virtue whence you swerv'd.  
The jealous eye of Fox, the tongue of Burke  
Will drag out villain minds, nor let them lurk.  
Devon and Rutland as your patterns take,  
And in discretion's rules you'll not mistake.  
Would you in godlike maxims wish t' excell,  
Mind Lincoln, Peterb'rough, St. David's well,

*The Tragic Muse.* A Poem addressed to Mrs. Siddons. 4to. 1s.  
Kearfley.

Mrs. Siddons is an actress whose powers are great; her manner is chaste, and she has selected those parts which she performs with taste and judgment. An attempt to delineate her in those characters (which are sketched in this piece), must therefore be agreeable to the lovers of theatrical representation.—The author of the Tragic Muse, is a warm, but not a prejudiced admirer: while he places his heroine on the tragic throne, he does not attempt to fulfil the reputation of her rivals; an instance of candour which cannot be too much commended.

#### M A T H E M A T I C S.

*An Introduction to Algebra; with Notes and Observations; designed for the Use of Schools, and Places of Public Education.* By John Bonnycastle. 12mo. 3s. Johnson.

The mathematical sciences are indisputably among the most useful branches of human knowledge, and we are always happy to promote and encourage every judicious attempt to facilitate their acquirement. The present compendious treatise does its author much credit, and deserves our highest commendations. Mr. Bonnycastle appears to be well acquainted with the works of our best writers on this subject, and has availed himself of that knowledge, in a manner which cannot fail of recommending his performance to all those who have a true taste for this excellent and important science. Almost every subject that belongs to pure algebra, is treated with conciseness and perspicuity; the rules are drawn up with accuracy and judgment; and are constantly illustrated with a number of well chosen and apposite examples: so that, as a manual for the purpose of teaching, we know of no one, of the same kind, that has a greater claim to the attention both of the tutor and learner.

To those who wish to be thoroughly acquainted with the analytic art, and its extensive application to the other branches of mathematical sciences, Mr. Bonnycastle very properly recommends the works of Newton, Maclaurin, Saunderson, Simpson, and Emerson; and ingenuously observes, that he has no

higher aim, in the publication of this treatise, than that of making it a useful and necessary introduction to those excellent writers. ‘A great number of elementary books (says the author) have already been written upon this subject; but there are none that I have yet seen, but what appear to me to be extremely defective. Besides being totally unfit for the purpose of teaching, they are generally calculated to vitiate the taste, and mislead the judgment. A tedious and inelegant method prevails through the whole, so that the beauty of the science is destroyed by the clumsy and awkward manner in which it is treated; and the learner, when he is afterwards introduced to some of our best writers, is obliged to unlearn and forget every thing that he has been at so much pains in acquiring.’

‘It is in the sciences, as in every branch of polite literature; there is a certain taste and elegance that is only to be obtained from the best authors, and a judicious use of their instructions. To direct the student in his choice of books, and to prepare him properly for the advantages he may receive from them, is, therefore, the business of every writer who engages in the humble, but useful task of a preliminary tutor. This information I have been careful to give, in every part of the present performance, where it could be thought to be in the least useful or necessary. The nature, and confined limits of my plan, admitted not of diffuse observations, or a formal enumeration of particulars, but nothing of real use and importance has been omitted. My principal object was to consult the ease, satisfaction, and accommodation of the learner; and if the execution of the work is found equal to the design, my purpose will be answered, and it cannot fail of meeting with a candid and favourable reception from the public.’

The author acquaints us, in his preface, that he means to give an entire introductory course of mathematical science; and, from what we have seen of the volumes he has already published, we cannot but wish him success in his undertaking.

D. R. A. M. A. T. I. C.  
*The Capricious Lady, a Comedy (altered from Beaumont and Fletcher. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.*

This Comedy, in its original slate, was held in high esteem; Dryden has, however, censured the construction of the fable, which he says wants art in the catastrophe, particularly with respect to the character of Morecraft the usurer, whose change of character, as he observes, is a little forced. The *alterer* of this piece confesses, in his preface, that he has availed himself ‘of the remarks made by Dryden, and some of the first critics in the beginning of the present century, according to the best of his abilities.’ The alterations do not appear to owe much to his abilities, every thing he has expunged having been marked out as improper, in the *Spectator*, No. 270.—A new Prologue and Epilogue are added: the Prologue is written by the author; the Epilogue by Mr. Colman.

*Whish is the Man, a Comedy. By Mrs. Cowley. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.*

This comedy, during the first season of its representation, was a great favourite with the public: we are afraid, however, it will not please so much in the closet. Though the characters are not destitute of novelty, humour, and passion; yet pleasantry is attempted to be promoted by the introduction of farce. The dialogue (particularly of the women) is delicate, and the sentiments chaste; but many of them are borrowed, and several of the allusions carry an affectation of classical learning, too pedantic for that natural flow which is the greatest beauty in the language of comedy.

*The Mysterious Husband. A Tragedy. By Richard Cumberland, Esq. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dilly.*

The principal incidents of this piece are borrowed from *The Mysterious Mother*, a tragedy written by Mr. Walpole, but never published. It has been favourably received by the public in representation; but will not sustain the ordeal of criticism. The fable, though domestic, is not natural; many of the incidents are offensive to probability, and so devoid of art in their preparation and arrangement, that the mind has nothing in expectation, a series of anticipation running through the piece, the conduct of which is deficient in what Shakspeare terms 'the cunning of the scene.'

The dialogue is written in prose, but not marked with characteristic diction, which is essential to dramatic writing. Almost every character speaks the same language; and, though there are some strong expressions, yet, in the most interesting situations, the success of the scene depends principally upon the exertions of the performers. Mr. Cumberland has not only copied many sentiments from others, but has borrowed from himself; several thoughts in *The Mysterious Husband* having been given to the public before, in his other pieces.

The introduction of comic characters into the tragedies of our early dramatists, has been considered as a sacrifice to the unpolished taste of the times. The cause no longer exists: the most successful of our modern tragedies are free from the unnatural intrusion of comedy and farce; yet Mr. Cumberland has brought forward a character written to please the *groundlings*. He has introduced humour where *all* should be passion. He has arrested the impressions of pity and terror, to excite laughter, preferring the approbation of the ignorant to the feelings of the judicious.

The moral, which ought to be the great end of all dramatic composition, is, in the piece before us, but ill calculated to promote virtue. When a villain denies the existence of the soul, and reviles religion, his punishment in the catastrophe, if naturally produced as the consequence of his infidelity, may create an abhorrence to his principles; but when a character drawn as the representative of a virtuous, honourable, and brave man, solicits the wife of another person to live with him in adultery, and

excuses his solicitation, by adverting to the claims of a prior mutual passion, the cause of virtue is materially injured. Of this there are two examples in the third act of the tragedy before us.

‘*Lord Davenant.* I will not live in torments ; nor shall the preaching of pedantic churchmen fetter this free spirit in this body, when it is weary of its prison. What know they of an hereafter more than we, who never proved it ? All is speculation in futurity ; and he that travels on in misery, in the hope or fear of what shall meet him at his journey’s end, gives up his reason for a dream, and follows a blind guide, he knows not whither, and he knows not why.’

‘*Dormer.* Do you still love me ?

*La. Davenant.* Dearer than life itself.

*Dorm.* Give me a noble proof.

*L. Dav.* What would you have me do ?

*Dorm.* Thus, thus, for ever let me clasp you to my heart — here let me hold you.—This be your asylum ! destined for each other, wedded in our souls, Heaven, that has reunited us now sanctifies our privileged embrace. Spoiled of my heart’s best treasure, thus, my Louisa, by that dear loved name thus I claim thee.—Now no tyrant husband, no base sordid uncle shall divide us.’

*Rosina, a Comic Opera, in two Acts.* Written by Mrs. Brooke.

8vo. 1s. Cadell.

This opera has been received by the public with very warm marks of approbation. The author in an advertisement, says, she has taken her fable from the Book of Ruth, the episode of Palemon and Lavinia in Thomson’s Seasons, and an opera of Monsieur Favart. The style of the dialogue proves its having been translated from the latter. The songs, though elegant, are not all original, several of them having appeared in fugitive publications. Two comic characters, introduced by Mrs. Brooke, are truly pleasant, and keep up the spirit of the piece.

The music is composed by Mr. Shields, and was received with applause.

*Barnaby Brittle, or a Wife at her Wits End. A Farce.* 8vo. 1s. Kearsley.

This Farce is taken from The Amorous Widow, or Wanton Wife, a comedy translated by Betterton from Moliere’s George Dandin. The situations are truly farcical, and the characters are well conceived, but the dialogue is destitute of wit.—The immorality of the fable, and the indecent allusions with which the piece abounds, are blemishes the author ought not to have admitted,

## MISCELLANEOUS.

*The Ecclesiastical Patronage of the Church of England, containing an alphabetical Register of all the ecclesiastical Dignities and Benefices in the Gift of, all the Archbishops, Bishops, Deans, and Deans and Chapters in England; in each County separate. Together with their Valuation in the King's Books: also the Names and Degrees of all the present Dignitaries of each Diocese.* By T. Bateman, A. M. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Cadell.

This publication may answer several useful purposes. In the first place, it will gratify the curiosity of the reader in a variety of articles, relative to ecclesiastical orders, dignities, and revenues.

Secondly, it will present the young divine with a view of those honours, and preferments, which are calculated to enliven his hopes, alleviate his anxieties, and stimulate him to the love of learning, industry, virtue, and piety; by which, we are to suppose, such rewards are to be obtained.

Lastly, it will remind the generous and disinterested patron, of the many happy opportunities, which Divine Providence has given him, of encouraging and rewarding the meritorious, and of congratulating himself on his own auspicious fortune, when he can say, on the vacancy of every living in his patronage, *DETUR DIGNISSIMO.*

*Observations on Dr. Johnson's Life of Hammond.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Brown.

Dr. Johnson has declared, that the Elegies of Hammond have neither passion, nature, nor manners; and that it would be hard to find three stanzas in them, which deserve to be remembered. This ingenious writer, on the contrary, insists, that in those compositions, all is native simplicity, and unaffected feeling. He observes, and confirms his observation by copious extracts, that Hammond's Elegies are in many parts close imitations, and sometimes exact translations, of Tibullus. However, says he, Hammond's poetical fame does not rest solely upon his merit as a translator or imitator: his original compositions, though few, are excellent. — The admirers of simplicity will undoubtedly be pleased with the writings of Hammond; but simplicity sometimes degenerates into meanness; and the exact boundaries of these two qualities will perhaps never be precisely determined.

*Remarks on Dr. Johnson's Life, and critical Observations on the Works of Mr. Gray.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Fielding.

This writer attends Dr. Johnson step by step through his observations on the writings of Gray, and generally controverts his opinion. As the points in debate are objects of sentiment and taste, it will be difficult to ascertain the propriety and justice of their respective decisions. In controversies of this nature, while the one party considers the defects, and the other the beauties

of

of an author, the truth generally lies in the middle; and the object of their criticism is neither so good, nor so bad a writer, as he is represented.

To these Remarks are subjoined some complimentary verses on Mr. Gray's *Cedes*, by Mr. Garrick.

*Remarks on Dr. Johnson's Lives of the most eminent English Poets.*  
By a Yorkshire Freeholder. 4to. 15. 6d. Baldwin.

The author of this pamphlet seems to possess so little of the characteristic acuteness of his countrymen, that we are almost tempted to doubt his right to the title he has assumed. The ground he takes is certainly tenable, but he maintains it more by virulence than argument; as our readers will perceive from the following quotation.

'Whoever will take the trouble of reading the Doctor's Lives of the Poets, will soon be convinced, that, so far from being a tender and impartial biographer, he is a cruel and merciless critic. He is continually holding up to public view the most weak and imperfect passages of every poet. The four volumes are half filled with them; long extracts from other writers fill up another large space, and the little that remains is the Doctor's own. Happy would it have been for him if that little had never been written: his feelings, as a man, might not then have been so much questioned. He has not only criticized the works of the poets, but he has also wantonly exposed their failings: had Churchill been living he dared not have acted thus.'

This author's principal *quarrel* with Dr. Johnson is for being a Tory, and mingling the political with the literary character of those whose lives he writes. It appears to us, that a writer of the lives of poets intended to be prefixed to their poetical works, has very little business to discuss their religious or political tenets; at least, he ought to be careful that those tenets do not bias his judgement in regard to their literary characters. This, prejudice, we are afraid, has sometimes influenced Dr. Johnson. Though we think the Doctor liable to censure in this point, we cannot consider the present attack as very formidable.

The Yorkshire Freeholder is also displeased with Dr. Johnson's critical opinions. We do not, however, think our author has attacked his antagonist in the weakest place. Of ethic and didactic poetry, we look upon the Doctor as a consummate judge; in the pathetic also, we think his discriminations are frequently as nice as his feelings are refined; but in respect of the sublime, and what relates purely to the imagination, we cannot help thinking that his decisions are not always to be trusted.

Though we cannot subscribe to all the Doctor's opinions, and are not blind to his prejudices, we think the Yorkshire Freeholder has no reason to boast of his own impartiality; for the man who can go such lengths, in the defence of Cromwell's character

character as he has done\*, is, at least, as much inclined to Republicanism as the Doctor to Toryism; and all who are animated by the true principles of the Whigs, may justly say of their cause, *non defensoribus ipsis*.

*Some Passages of the Life and Death of John Earl of Rochester.*  
By Gilbert Burnet, D.D. Bishop of Sarum, &c. A new Edition in small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Davies.

The occasion of the re-publication of this narrative, is the praise bestowed upon it by Dr. Johnson, in his 'Lives of the Poets.' Its merit is perhaps exaggerated by the Doctor's encomium; but it, doubtless, must be regarded as a remarkable biographical narrative.

*The Art of Pleasing; or, Instructions for Youth in the first Stage of Life. In a Series of Letters from the late Earl of Chesterfield to the present.* 12mo. 2s. Kearsley.

This is a manufacture of the same flimsy kind with some former Letters. They are probably genuine; but their authenticity is of little consequence. 'Lord Fanny spins a thousand such, a-day.' There are the same fancies, the same niceties, the same elegancies, and the same indiscretions. Perhaps this is too soft a word. The editor informs us that the earl, in his maturer age, had probably discovered the mistakes of his earlier system; for whatever errors may be pointed out in the latter, no such exceptions can be made to the precepts delivered in this volume. He had not surely read the present work with attention; for he would then have found that the earl's 'being, end, and aim,' was still to be amiable; and that provided decency be observed, slight errors should be overlooked. We need not remark the very obvious impropriety of filling letters, to a boy ten years old, with French and Latin sentences; and some, where the whole meaning depends on the peculiar idioms of the language. We can, indeed, recommend these Letters as less exceptionable than those to his son; but we should still disapprove of putting them into the hands of any one, whose tutors could not furnish, both from their example and precepts, a judicious commentary on them.

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\* 'Milton was not particular in justifying the beheading of Charles. A great majority of the nation seemed to have approved it. Hume, the professed panegyrist of the Stewart family, says that the regicides, and many others, thought the beheading of Charles one of the most meritorious actions of their lives. He had certainly been guilty of some unlawful actions. Milton had no doubt of it. And when he offered his services to Cromwell, he thought he was discharging his duty to his country. However Cromwell might obtain the protectorship, it is evident by all his public acts, that he was always influenced by an ardent love for the welfare and glory of his country. He is called by Gregorio Leti, who wrote his life, the Tyrant without Vices. Milton thought it no crime to flatter what he esteemed a spotless character. The praises which Milton has given Cromwell, were no more than he deserved.'

The

*The History of the Life of William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.* 8vo.  
5s. Kearsley.

The author of this volume is a young writer, apparently animated and able; but, like others of his age, his animation sometimes rises into bombast, and his terseness into obscurity. He begins with a very slender stock; for the whole of this volume seems to have been compiled from the meagre accounts of the Magazines of the day. There is no information of new facts; there is no judicious developement of character, or philosophical investigation of the views of the hero, or his companions. The reflections are, in general, the see-saw scruples of the sceptic:—they do not allure by their brilliancy, or attract by their justice; yet with all these errors we are inclined to think that, in better circumstances, and on another subject, the author might engage our attention, and deserve our approbation. We are convinced that he does not want abilities; and the flashes of his vivacity, corrected by maturer judgement, might render him a respectable candidate for fame. He seems to look up to the abbé Raynal as a pattern of excellence; but we would advise him to imitate with caution; and, if he can equal his animation, to endeavour also to imitate his profound knowledge and his philosophical discernment. The former is at best a sounding trifle, when it has not the solid recommendation of the latter; and often, by its glare, obscures a degree of merit which might otherwise have been conspicuous, or disgusts the sober enquirer who attends only to careful and exact investigation.

*Extract from the Life of Lieutenant Henry Foley, of his Majesty's  
Regiment of Foot.* Vol. I. small 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinson.

The imitators of Sterne have seldom been able to boast of their success. Every one can break his sentences with dashes.—Authors can be frequently desultory, and always obscene; though few can attain that warmth of colouring, which transports the reader to the scene which they represent: few can imitate the glowings of his humanity, or the exquisiteness of his feelings—his tenderness and pathos.—But we must not enter on his panegyric; our readers are already acquainted with his merits. It is sufficient to observe, that this little story is not very unlike the genuine works of the inimitable Yorick.—It is equally desultory, and equally descriptive; it also interests the feelings, and checks the ardor of unwarrantable passions, by detailing the distressing consequences of their indulgence. All its parts are not, however, supported by the same spirit: in the middle, though it cannot be said to fail, it is certainly less interesting; yet, on the whole, it is superior to many attempts of the same kind; and if the author can pursue it with equal spirit, he probably will not be disappointed by its reception.

*The Beauties of Fielding, carefully selected from the whole Works of  
that eminent Writer.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Kearsley.

*The Beauties of the late Rev. Dr. Isaac Watts.* 12mo. 2s. 6d.  
sewed. Kearsley.

*The Beauties of Hume and Bolingbroke.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Sewed.  
Kearsley.

*The Beauties of Goldsmith; or the Moral and Sentimental Treasury of Genius.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

*The Beauties of Swift; or the Favorite Offspring of Wit and Genius.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Kearsley.

We have already expressed our indignation at that frivolity, which can be pleased with such mutilated detached views. Some authors have rejoiced at the burning of the Alexandrian Library, that they may have room for their own lucubrations; but these laborious moles in the service of literature would have the greatest reason to lament a disaster of this kind.—Fielding and Watts seem to have suffered severely, because a great share of their merit is owing to a continued chain of adventures, or to a connected perspicuous view of their subjects.—Hume and Bolingbroke should never have been brought within reach of the world in general: we believe that Hume has hitherto done little mischief; for his works were beyond the purchase of some pretended philosophers, and above the understanding of others. In his own country, his moral conduct was very conspicuous; and there is a very correct and animated description of the *man*, in the preface prefixed to this patch-work, which will be read with pleasure when the *author* is forgotten.—Goldsmith, tender and affecting bard—we wept over thy mangled limbs! the remnant of a Cyclops feast, or the ornaments of a giant's cave.—Swift deserved better treatment; though in his works there are passages we would wish to forget, which Friendship would, perhaps, have blotted with her tears; yet the bulk of the volume is, at last, assisted by some very exceptionable parts. Poor Hawkesworth! how vain thy labour, if the Beauties of so many volumes will not fill a humble duodecimo!

The Lives are chiefly a compilation from different authors, though there are some parts whose source we do not recollect. They are, in general, executed with spirit and ability\*. We would willingly save from the oblivion, which these scraps will soon experience, that part which relates to the character of Hume; for it is probably new. It will draw a veil over his scepticism, and probably induce those who may chuse to adopt it, to adopt also the moral rectitude of his conduct, and the blameless simplicity of his manners.

\* Hume maintained through life an unsullied reputation for every species of virtue and worth. In company or out of it, abroad or at home, his good-nature never forsook him. His temper was generally unruffled, even while the petulance of his pious persecutors exposed him to the rudest insult: and he has been known to revise, with exemplary candour, the foulest li-

\* There are some ludicrous press errors, Dr. Watts, for instance, is said to have been six feet high!

bels, presented to him under the name of *Answers to some parts of his writings*. The very poor in his neighbourhood, though instigated by priestcraft to revile and execrate his opinions, regarded his benevolence and humanity with a mixture of reverence and gratitude. His deportment on every occasion, while eminently chaste and manly, was altogether the reverse of pomp or ostentation. Peculiarly affable and easy of access, he discovered nothing of the scholar, either in his appearance or conversation; and all his attentions, being the spontaneous effusions of genuine philanthropy, were without ceremony or parade. While his talents were vigorously exerted to overturn the system, his morals would have adorned the purest and most primitive ages, of Christianity! And he was neither wanting in that extraordinary strength of mind, nor in that singular goodness of heart, which in every country and period of human story have always distinguished the greatest and best of men.'

*An Historical Account of two Species of the Lycoperdon. By C. Bryant, Norwich. 8vo. 2s. Wilkie.*

The author of this tract attempts to amend the definitions which Mr. Hudson has given of the 'Lycoperdon stellatum & forniciatum\*.' The distinction has hitherto depended on the number of the radii, into which the volva breaks; but Mr. Bryant, who seems to have examined, with much attention, these hidden plants, if they deserve the title, thinks that the situation of the head is a more proper criterion. In the former it is sessile, in the latter pedunculated. But the volvæ of the last species are sometimes divided into four radii. Though it be probably accidental, he has retained the *Lycoperdon quadrifidum* as a variety of the *forniciatum*. There are, indeed, other marks of distinction, but it would be useless to mention them particularly. While this neglected class of plants are by some denied even the rank of vegetables, our author wishes to exalt them into that of animals. The puff-balls indeed throw out their dust only in dry weather; but this is the necessary consequence of the contraction of the elastic covering of their heads. They deserve a greater share of our regard from their structure, rather than from their utility: the several species of the fungi are imperfectly known, and in many instances erroneously classed; we would therefore recommend them to the attention of the naturalists.—We hope, if we meet our author on the same ground, to find his language more careful and exact.

*Observations on such nutritive Vegetables as may be substituted in the Place of ordinary Food. Extracted from the French of M. Parmentier. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray.*

Our author has professedly extracted the more useful parts of M. Parmentier's work, though by aiming only at what was generally useful, he has omitted many which are both curious and interesting. He deserves great credit for the benevolence of

\* The starry and the turret puff-ball.

his intentions ; but will make few converts to his opinion of the salubrity and excellence of horse-chesnuts, and acorns ; We should indeed tremble for his safety, were his name and his proposal generally known ; for those who, in the greatest scarcity, still require the productions of both the Indies for their luxuries, will not deny themselves their own fruits, when they have so just a plea as that of necessity.

The author is mistaken in asserting that this Memoir obtained the prize offered by the Academy of Besançon in 1777, and was published in 1780 ; for we remember to have seen it about the end of the year 1773. The list of vegetable roots was then very different, and the names were taken from Car. Bauch. The present appellations are Linnæan ; and, in the new edition, from which the translation is made, even the species are changed. We could, in some instances, correct this catalogue, and add considerably to it, were it an object which deserved our attention ; but if the scarcity of corn compels the poor to seek other diet, they have a ready resource in the list of farinaceous substances. As it may be a matter of some curiosity to see how many vegetables yield a nutritious flour, which may be converted even into starch, we shall transcribe the catalogue our author has given us in the present work. It may be necessary to add, that the farina, properly extracted, is the same in all.—They leave their distinguishing tastes and colours in the water used in the preparation.

The roots are those of ' Common Burdock ; *Arctium Lappa*.—Deadly Nightshade ; *Atropa Belladonna*.—Bistort Snakeweed ; *Polygonum Bistorta*.—White Bryony ; *Bryonia alba*.—Meadow Saffron ; *Colchicum autumnale*.—Meadow-sweet ; *Spiraea filipendula*.—Masterwort ; *Imperatoria Ostruthium*.—Black Henbane ; *Hyoscyamus niger*.—Pimpernel-leaved Dropwort ; *Cænæthe Pimpinelloides*.—Obtuse-leaved Dock ; *Rumex obtusifolius*.—Sharp-leaved Dock ; *Rumex acutus*.—Water-Dock ; *Rumex Aquaticus, an Britannica ?*—Wake Robin ; *Aurum maculatum*.—Bulbous Crowfoot ; *Ranunculus bulbosus*.—Knotted Figwort ; *Schrophularia nodosa*.—Dwarf Elder ; *Sambucus ebulus*.—Common Elder ; *Sambucus nigra*.—Common Flag ; *Iris pseudacorus*.—Stinking Flag ; *Iris foetidissima*.—The seeds are those of ' Wall Barley ; *Hordeum murinum*.—Cock's-foot Panic-grass ; *Panicum Dactylon*.—Wild Oat-grass ; *Avena fatua*.—Tall Oat-grass ; *Avena elatior*.—Floating Fescue grass ; *Festuca fluitans*.—Annual Darnel-grass ; *Lolium temulentum*.—Field Broom-grass ; *Bromus secalinus*.—Cow Wheat ; *Melampyrum arvense*.—Cock's-comb ; *Rhinanthus cristagalli*.—Hare's-foot : *Trifolium arvense*.—Corn Spurry ; *Spergula arvensis*.—Knot-grass ; *Polygonum aviculare*.—Snakeweed ; *Polygonum convolvulus*.—Corn Cockle ; *Agrostemma Githago*.—Heath Pease ; *Orobus Tuberosus*.—Wild Carrot ; *Daucus Carota*.—Hare-bells ; *Hyacinthus non scriptus*.—Wild Parsnip ; *Pastinaca sylvestris*.—Pignut ; *Bunium bulbo-castratum*.'

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But what will render this catalogue more particularly valuable to men of letters is, the accuracy with which it is compiled, the full and satisfactory description of every article, and the excellent arrangement of the whole under distinct and regular classes.

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